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VOL. XC.—NO. 2339. THURSDAY, APRIL 28, 1910 PRICE TEN CENTS.

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A WEEKLY JOURNAL.

FOUNDED IN 1865.

[*Entered at the New York City Post Office as second-class mail matter.*]

The Nation is published and owned by the New York Evening Post Co. Oswald Garrison Villard, President; William J. Pattison, Treasurer; Paul Elmer More, Editor.

Three dollars per year in advance, postpaid, in any part of the United States or Mexico; to Canada $3.50, and to foreign countries comprised in the Postal Union $4.00.

Address THE NATION, Box 794, New York.
Publication Office, 20 Vesey Street.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 28, 1910.

The Week.

We are tempted to ask of what use it is to have opinions, when we see it stated that President Taft, while opposed to the bill creating a retired list for all surviving volunteer officers, will not go so far as to veto it. He regards it, so the story runs, as nothing but an attempt to catch the old-soldier vote at the coming elections, and as a wholly unnecessary drain upon the Treasury—but he will not veto it. It will cost $9,264,012, in addition to present pensions awarded to the prospective beneficiaries—but Mr. Taft will not veto it. Why not, Mr. Taft? Is it fear of the elections? Then let us suggest to the President a study of Mr. Cleveland's Administration. Does he know that Mr. Cleveland read every pension bill that came before him; that his wholesale vetoes of unworthy pension bills did more than anything else to convince the country of his downright honesty and devotion to the public welfare? Mr. Taft's friends are most eager for him to recover his lost ground. We suggest a vigorous use of the veto as an easy and highly desirable road to public favor. And nothing calls for a veto more loudly than this scandalous raid upon the Treasury by the pension-grabbers.

"The chief difficulty among Senators on the other side," said Senator Bailey in the debate on the railway bill last Friday, "is one of nice distinctions as to how they shall comply with party platforms. If that is to be the rule, there will be no need for Senators of wisdom, ability, and learning." Irrespectively either of its application or of its source, the point is well taken. There are two kinds of fidelity to party pledges. One comprises the fulfilment of the broad purposes to which the party has been clearly committed, and the carrying out of such specific promises in the platform as were the embodiment of intentions deliberately arrived at and known to be part of the party's programme. The other kind of fidelity consists in taking the platform, plank by plank, and undertaking a literal compliance with its language, as though it were a contract. The first kind is right and wise, the second kind flies in the face of the most elementary principles of statesmanship. To pursue it would mean to make the result of a twenty-four-hour discussion, engaged in by a group of men who have been selected for a few days' service and who have never before been associated in a common work, conclusive as to the policy of the national government for four years. Everybody knows that the platform is a variegated affair, some parts of which are to be taken at their face value and others not. It is a rough guide to the voters, but its various parts have to be estimated in the light of common sense and political judgment. If Mr. Taft had appreciated the evident fact that the whole country understood the tariff plank as binding him to do more than it said in so many words, and other planks as not binding him at all, he and his party and the country would to-day be in a better position.

In his speech at Port Jervis, N. Y., on October 23, 1906, during his first campaign for the Governorship, Mr. Hughes thus set forth his beliefs on the Anti-Trust Law of 1890:

> We do not want anything which will interfere with business enterprise. We don't want anything which will interfere with investments to give opportunities for labor. We do not want to return to soup houses. We don't want to make it difficult for men to find employment. But, on the other hand, we do want to make it difficult for anybody or for any set to unite together and prevent other people from having perfectly fair and just treatment. We want to end discrimination in business. I am for the Anti-Trust act.

Even without this explicit affirmation, the Governor's activities in preparing the new insurance law and in establishing the Public Service Commissions would have provided convincing evidence of his position. But the speech of 1906 also reflects the Governor's belief in conservative interpretation of the law. It was the man he succeeds, Justice Brewer, who, in the Northern Securities case, although he concurred with the four other Justices who found against the company, held that the verdict should be based distinctly on the ground of "unreasonable restraints of trade," and not extended to "those minor contracts in partial restraint of trade which a long course of decisions at common law had affirmed were reasonable and ought to be upheld." Neither in Justice Brewer's attitude, nor in that of Gov. Hughes is there to be found any support for Judge Lacombe's Circuit Court opinion on the Tobacco case in 1908, that the Anti-Trust Act "prohibits every contract or combination in restraint of competition," and that two rival express-wagons, which should join forces in operating between villages on opposite sides of a State line, would be repugnant to the law.

> My position as regards the moneyed interests can be put in a few words. In every civilized society property rights must be carefully safeguarded; ordinarily and in the great majority of cases, human rights and property rights are fundamentally and in the long run identical; but when it clearly appears that there is a real conflict between them, human rights must have the upper hand, for property belongs to man and not man to property.—[Mr. Roosevelt at the Sorbonne.

This is sound doctrine, every word of it. It is the same doctrine that Mr. William Jennings Bryan made familiar in his first great campaign. He packed it into epigrammatic form in the phrase, "The man above the dollar." To him, however, it "clearly appeared" that there was a "real conflict" between human rights and property rights in the question of the gold standard, and his conclusion accordingly was that the gold standard must go. Mr. Roosevelt, on the other hand, was at that time denouncing Bryan as a repudiationist of the worst kind, because it was *not* clear to him that the line between human rights and property rights was to be drawn in the way that recommended itself to Bryan and his followers. Mr. Debs, again, is firmly convinced that human rights conflict with property rights in a far more profound manner; while Count Tolstoy goes further still. In fact, the doctrine so solemnly set forth by Mr. Roosevelt leaves us exactly where it finds us; and every man Jack of us, from Senator Aldrich to Herr Bebel, can subscribe to it without fear that it will incommode him.

The promptness with which the trial of a peculiarly atrocious and revolting

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murderer was brought to a close in this city last week, the firmness and dignity with which the proceedings were conducted by the judge, and the efficiency of the District Attorney's office in the handling of the case, have been made the subject of deserved commendation in the press. What has been praised as an exception ought to become the rule, and indeed a mere matter of course. Our country distances all other modern countries, by far, both in the number of homicides and in the small proportion of convictions. Although it is not the only cause, yet it is certain that one of the great causes of the multitude of murders in our country is the lack of business-like determination in the prosecution of murderers. Even the comfort that can be got out of this case, in which the matter was concluded with proper expedition, is diminished by the consideration that the crime was so unspeakably abhorrent, and the criminal so devoid of any redeeming quality, that there was no room for sympathy on the part of the most morbid or the most silly; and in addition to this, the evidence was simple and overwhelming. Nevertheless, it is to be hoped that this example of expeditious procedure, sacrificing no right of the accused, but at the same time not trifling with the stern demands of justice, will help to set a standard for future trials.

For reasons not obvious, American operas based on plots concerned with red men have never been successful. A conspicuous instance of undeserved failure was "The Ogallalas," by Henry Waller, who is also remembered to-day because he was the first American who succeeded in getting one of his works performed at the Royal Opera in Berlin. It does not seem likely, however, that the demonstration made against "Poia" in that city on Saturday night and in the following day's newspaper criticisms had anything to do with its Indian subject. The Germans have ever been fond of Indian stories; their boys and girls read Cooper as much as ours used to read him, and he has been imitated by Gustav Nieritz and other popular writers. Moreover, exotic music is much in favor at present, and as Arthur Nevin's opera contains tunes gathered in the camps of Blackfoot Indians, it should have made additional appeal from this point of view. Had it been simply an uninteresting opera, it would have been damned with faint praise and allowed to vanish silently. The heat of the opposition was evidently due to long repressed indignation at the Kaiser's predilection for things American, including opera singers. Was it not enough to have half a dozen of the best places at the Royal Opera given to Americans, without lugging in American operas, too, when Germany has so many composers awaiting a hearing?

Renewal of trans-Atlantic wireless telegraphy by the rebuilding of the burned station at Glace Bay was assuredly a fitting occasion for the exchange of congratulatory messages between the postmasters-general of Canada and Great Britain, and Mr. Marconi. "We are the real rectors of the world," said one of the most distinguished living Canadians not long ago to the rector in whose parish lies one of his country estates; "we men who are bringing the peoples of the world closer together by means of great railroads and steamships, who devote our lives to the annihilation of time and distance." Powerful agents of progress such men undoubtedly are, and if within their overwhelmingly practical personalities there is left a spark of idealism, as in the instance referred to, the world may consider itself doubly blessed. The possibilities of the wireless are yet as vague as they are tremendous. Who may foretell the effect on the history of the future of world-wide conversation through the air? Already, in its infancy, its C. Q. D. has thrilled the human mind with its message of elements conquered and man triumphant.

The wreck of the Zeppelin II will elicit world-wide sympathy for the aged inventor, who seems fated to see a long life of endeavor filled with disappointments. It is not to be supposed that the German people will again come to his aid as they did last summer, when they subscribed nearly three-quarters of a million dollars to replace the airship that was destroyed at Echterdingen. That popular upheaval was more in the nature of a national vote of gratitude to Count Zeppelin than of confidence in his solution of the problem of the air. Expert opinion has all along been against the Zeppelin type of a rigid and enormous airship that is costly to build, costly to drive and stable, and, by very reason of its enormous bulk, at all times exposed to the mercy of the storms, as has now been tragically demonstrated. Even if Zeppelins could be kept from dashing themselves into fragments, they would call for an elaborate equipment that would greatly reduce their value under actual conditions of warfare. A whole regiment of men to hold the ship down is something that a commanding officer in the field might find hard to spare. If the dirigible is to play a part in modern armaments, the choice plainly points to the smaller semi-rigid or flexible type as developed in the German Gross and Parseval machines and in the various French airships.

But even the cheapest of dirigible machines is an expensive affair compared with the cost of a Wright or Farman aeroplane; and the question of cost will enter largely into the ultimate decision between the merits of the heavier-than-air machine and the steerable balloon for purposes of war. The last two weeks have shown that in fair weather the dirigible can fly far and the aeroplane can fly far, as it has done for Paulan and the Englishman White. And it has also been shown that in rough weather aeroplanes and dirigibles will alike go to smash. It becomes, then, a practical question for the people in charge of Europe's military budgets whether it pays to invest the same amount of money in a single dirigible or in a dozen aeroplanes. The greater degree of stability is, of course, still with the former; but as a matter of practical economy, it might pay to let a half-dozen aeroplanes turn turtle for every one that responds to the task put upon it. It is not necessary in the ultimate settlement of the question that the decision shall be all for the aeroplane or all for the dirigible. There may easily be room for both. The balloon, with its expensive sheds and equipment, would correspond to the present fortress or system of coast-defence. The aeroplane, comparatively compact, portable, independent of gas and hydrogen supply, would be the counterpart of the field artillery, or even the light machine gun.

Despite the optimistic reports from Havana indicating that the Republic is proceeding vigorously against the disaffected negroes headed by Gen. Estenoz,

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there is no disputing the critical situation of the Government. Whether the present action will really inspire fear of the Administration sufficient to tide it over the summer remains to be seen. The West, it is rumored, has been "organized" against Gomez, as the phrase runs, for some time past. There is acute jealousy between the new regular army, unnecessarily created by the last American government of intervention, at whose doors many sins must be laid, and the Rural Guards. Gen. Pino Guerra, the commander of the uncalled-for regular army, was careful to recruit most of its members from his own province, Pinar del Rio. Having been himself merely a frequenter of cafés, without regular employment, prior to the revolution of 1906, his major-general's commission was so rich a reward for heading the rebellion against the Palma Government that it is not to be supposed he would look with disfavor upon another uprising, particularly as he is reported to have quarrelled with Gomez. The distribution of spoils has been going on now for something over a year—long enough to create many malcontents who feel that they are not getting their share of the booty. Fortunately, the sugar crop has been a good one; else the outlook would be menacing, indeed.

That the head of Scotland Yard should have used official secrets to supply to a newspaper articles which, it was obvious, would be used as campaign material is certainly a sufficient cause for British indignation, even after the lapse of many years. It is no wonder that a division in the House of Commons has been necessary to negative a motion to cancel the appropriation for Sir Robert Anderson's annual pension, after his bland avowal in a magazine that he was the author of the sensational "Parnellism and Crime." Hardly less humiliating to Englishmen than this revelation is the memory that the judgment of all concerned in the London *Times's* notorious publications was as ridiculous as the evidence with which a sorry attempt was made to combat the charge of libel. Piggott confessed forgery and blew his brains out; Le Caron, the spy, was obliterated, and the newspaper itself was almost wrecked. Had the evidence been sound, it would have been a matter for the prosecuting authorities, and if a detective's unsupported story was insufficiently corroborated for such a course, it was equally at fault for the purposes of newspaper publicity and party capital. But statements now freely made that the spy was an *agent provocateur*, and that the whole affair was a "put-up job" in which all the principals concerned were conspirators, will not be generally believed. Exasperation followed constant Fenian outrages. The Government was justified in using a secret service. To charge that this secret service itself instigated outrages is to charge conduct entirely out of harmony with British character.

The French electoral campaign has been enlivened by the appearance of a score of women as candidates for the Chamber of Deputies. How recent is the suffragist movement in France may be gathered from the fact that while the suffragette has almost disappeared from the columns of the British comic weeklies, she has now for the first time been exploited by the Paris press. Albert Guillaume in *Figaro* suggests that the woman whose husband is inclined to grumble at dressmakers' and milliners' bills is now in a position to threaten him with the much more expensive dissipation of running for Parliament. And yet one would imagine that the question of woman-suffrage would present itself most seriously in France, which is in the habit of thinking of itself as holding the vanguard of civilization, as the first nursery of political and social revolutions. The case is all the more odd because the French woman is so frequently on an equal economic basis with her husband, whether he be wage-earner or small business-man. And in higher circles of society, French women do exercise that indirect influence on politics, art, and literature which is in other countries more spoken of than real. Possibly in this very fact consists the reason of the French woman's smaller measure of discontent.

Something more than considerations of administrative military policy is probably involved in the reported decision of the Russian war office to transfer an entire army corps from the western frontier to the Volga region and southern Russia. The move is described as tantamount to an abandonment of Poland in case of an invasion by Germany. But the decisive step in that direction was taken some time ago when the Russian Government determined to abandon its chain of Polish fortresses and to concentrate its defences on the Asiatic frontier. Is it against Persia that the Russian forces are massing? Is it to Turkey in Asia, or possibly to Japan, that the index points? Or are the Polish battalions needed for keeping domestic order in the Volga provinces where, three years ago, there was danger of peasant uprisings? Whatever may be the motive, it is a situation which will be received with bitter dissatisfaction in France. This Russian alliance which has cost the French so many hundreds of millions and which utterly failed them in the hour of need, five years ago, will become a weaker reed than ever if Germany is entirely relieved of the menace of Russian troops on her eastern frontier.

Big with the promise of the future is the so-called United Universities Scheme, originating with Oxford and Cambridge, and intended to promote the foundation of a university in China which shall unite the educational forces at work there under a central head, at the same time preserving their autonomy, and shall also found new branches of educational work from the same source. On this matter, the distinguished Rector of Hatfield, the Rev. Lord William Gascoyne Cecil, brother of the Marquis of Salisbury, is now in this country with a mission to the presidents of our leading universities to arouse their interest in the plan. It is contended that far-reaching results will be attained by forming the forces of education into colleges and hostels on the plan of the English universities, and it is hoped by the committee in charge of the scheme, a committee on which are many men prominent in scholarly and clerical life in England, that not only will China be benefited by the adoption of such a plan, but that also by it the bond between England and the United States will be strengthened. In the words of Lord William Cecil, "China *will* have Western civilization," and the idea of combining the forces of this country and of England to present that civilization in a desirable and dignified form, must appeal strongly to those who are carrying on the work of our universities.

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GOV. HUGHES'S APPOINTMENT.

Gov. Hughes's decision to accept the appointment to the Supreme Court offered to him by President Taft takes from our active political life its finest figure. We had, frankly, not thought it possible that Mr. Hughes would even consider the offer. That so splendid a moral force, so rare an Executive, and so unselfish a patriot should be removed from the sphere of statesmanship, even by appointment to so exalted a position as the bench of our highest tribunal, appears to us a severe blow to the whole movement for the reform of our political conditions. The judge is necessarily excluded from the arena. His voice may be heard occasionally, as was Justice Brewer's, in the forum or the pulpit or on the platform. But when Gov. Hughes takes his seat in Washington a great educative force will be lost. That tremendous driving power which, coupled with his downright earnestness and sincerity, has twice convinced the State where its best interests lay, and with it his unusual executive ability, will fall into disuse. The strongest force for reform—strongest because of wise radicalism allied with a judicial temperament—is now to go out of our workaday political life.

From this point of view we cannot conceal our regret at Mr. Hughes's decision. Mr. Taft has rightly called him the Republican party's greatest asset. Even had Mr. Hughes gone back to the practice of the law, he must have remained a source of inspiration and power, ready to lend his ability and prestige to the great work of driving from our public life the bosses who have opposed his reforms, and of putting back into the hands of the people the control of their own affairs. It was impossible to think of Mr. Hughes really divorced from our political struggles; it was very easy to think of him as Senator in Washington, and even occupying a higher place, and still easier to think of him as in his law office a great moral leader of his party in the nation, in reserve for just such an emergency as made him Governor in 1906.

Yet from the point of view of the Supreme Court, everybody must rejoice; and we should be the last to underestimate the value of the services Mr. Hughes can render as a member of that body. Questions of far-reaching moment that call for another Marshall are coming before the Court, and will continue to come before it, testing our written Constitution as it has never yet been tested. That the Court needs vigorous, active personalities, men of sound judicial training combined with a clear understanding of the underlying political forces of the day, is undeniable. It has needed strengthening, needed it so badly that Mr. Taft's exultation on receiving Gov. Hughes's acceptance is easy to understand. So keen and trenchant a mind is bound to make itself felt at once; and it is natural to look forward to its exercise, later on, in the Chief Justiceship. Moreover, the Governor's comparative youth insures that continuity of service for years to come, the lack of the possibility of which caused the opposition to Justice Lurton.

If it is seldom of late years that a man nas stepped from high executive office to the Supreme Court, no one will dream of criticising Mr. Hughes's appointment for that reason. Between Salmon P. Chase's service as Governor of Ohio from 1855 to 1859 and his becoming Chief Justice were his three years and more in Lincoln's Cabinet. Like Gov. Hughes and Edwin M. Stanton, Chase nad never held any judicial office before going to the highest. But in his executive position at Albany, Mr. Hughes has displayed such unquestionable judicial qualities, besides exhibiting extraordinary zest for severe mental application, that Mr. Taft did the merely obvious thing in offering him Justice Brewer's place. That Mr. Hughes received it as a call to service is beyond question. We would not lay stress today upon the pecuniary sacrifice which Mr. Hughes makes in accepting the Justiceship. The alternative of a lucrative law practice in New York, with an income of a hundred thousand a year or more, might have made some men waver in their minds, but not, we are sure, Gov. Hughes. It is the opportunity to continue in the public service which has appealed to Gov. Hughes.

In what shape Gov. Hughes's transfer to the bench leaves his party in this State, on the eve of an important campaign; the effect of turning over the Governorship to the discredited Lieut.-Gov. White, and the fact that this change in Mr. Hughes's fortunes makes Mr. Roosevelt and Mr. Taft undisputed masters of the Republican party in the nation—these are questions into which we do not propose to enter to-day. We would rather, for all the regrets we have expressed, congratulate the country that Mr. Hughes is to remain in the public service, even if not in that capacity in which we feel that the country's need of him is most intense. He has done the State inestimable service—service the value of which will be better understood as time passes. For time can only add to the appreciation of his courage and his unsparing devotion of every thought and action to the people's interests. As soon as we get a perspective, we shall perceive clearly that Mr. Hughes has not only set up new standards of executive devotion and skill, but has made the whole country realize afresh the possibilities offered by the headship of our State governments for distinguished and useful service to State and country. In that way at least his influence will remain active in political life.

THE PHILIPPINE LAND SCHEME.

Whether it is the Sugar Trust or some other purchaser that has obtained a large slice of the Philippine Friar lands seems to us for the moment relatively unimportant. Congressman John A. Martin of Colorado is certain that the Sugar Trust has bought it through a dummy named Poole. That would not be surprising. When Mr. Forbes, the new Governor-General, was last in New York city he made an urgent appeal for the investment of capital in the Philippines. He wanted American business men to build railways, erect mills, purchase plantations, and generally to exploit the archipelago, or, as the cant phrase runs, "bring the blessings of civilization and prosperity to the islands." Only the lack of capital, he declared, prevented an extraordinary advance in the Philippines. It was consciously or unconsciously a deliberate invitation to the powerful syndicates that are seeking outlets for American capital abroad to come to the Philippines, whose richness Mr. Forbes vaunted.

Naturally, those who believe in the Philippines for the Filipinos protested. All, on the other hand, who desire to see the United States permanently hold the archipelago for purely money-making purposes applauded. They feel sure that if millions of American dollars are invested in the Philippines by the all-powerful business interests, the flag will

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never come down; that all those solemn pledges of benevolent intentions on our part, given by McKinley and others, will be forgotten, save by a handful of New England cranks, with their mouthings about national honor and duty. Unfortunately for Mr. Forbes's ambitions—we would not, of course, for an instant suggest that his motive is other than a sincere, though in our eyes mistaken, desire to aid the Filipinos—the organic law of the Philippines, a noble and enduring monument to the late Senator Hoar, is a fatal obstacle to the plans of capitalistic exploiters, in that it forbids the selling of more than forty acres of land to an individual and of more than 2,500 acres of land to a corporation. And this was made the organic law for the *express purpose* of preventing that very capitalistic exploitation of the islands now desired. It has prevented such exploitation, because 2,500 acres is too small a holding of land to make possible sugar planting on a sufficiently large scale to attract a syndicate or Trust.

As the National Progresista Party of the Philippines recently declared in convention assembled, the majority of the Americans in the islands, besides wishing these land restrictions removed, maintain that a declaration of perpetual American sovereignty is also essential as an inducement to that foreign capital which the Filipinos themselves have no desire to see entering the islands. Why should they? To exchange their present situation with all its limitations for a tense industrial system with overbearing foreigners—and Americans are the most hated foreigners in the Philippines—driving them to their tasks, is a thing that in no wise appeals to them. They, in their blindness, do not long for greater comforts of life and for higher standards of living at the cost of lives spent at arduous factory or plantation labor. They make a livelihood, bare at times, and why must they do otherwise at the behest of outsiders? To this has come a sharp reply from the United States Government headed by William H. Taft, the man whom, of all the Americans sent to them, the Filipinos loved best, because of his freedom from race-prejudice and his insistence upon the doctrine of "the Philippines for the Filipinos."

This reply is the sale in one lump of 55,000 acres of Friar lands to one purchaser. Unable to upset the organic law, the Administration has seized upon the opportunity afforded by the acquirement of Friar lands to declare, through an opinion of Attorney-General Wickersham, that the Friar lands are outside of the organic law. Indeed, the Insular Bureau asserts that "it has never been the understanding of the Philippine Government that the Friar lands were public lands in the sense in which the sale and lease of public lands was legislated," and avers that it would have had to dispossess tenants of long standing, if it did not permit them to purchase the lands they have rented. Mr. Wickersham as a lawyer of eminence would, of course, be indignant at any suggestion that he would write opinions to please the Government. It is surprising how many times the law happens to fit an Administration's desires! In this case, his opinion has been strongly assailed by able lawyers like Moorfield Storey of Boston. And it is a striking fact that the Senate Committee on Philippine Affairs has approved a repeal of the organic law. "Come in," the Administration can say to the Trusts, if this bill passes, "and help yourselves to the Philippines. We pound you at home, but will make it up to you in the Philippines"; and, of course, approval of the act will salve the consciences of those who, to our mind, have been acting under an interpretation of the law which, good or bad, is heartless, a betrayal of confidence, and essentially a violation of national faith.

There lies the meat of the matter. Whether the Sugar Trust is or is not the purchaser, whether the Henry W. Taft law firm is or is not involved, the sale of the 55,000 acres is indefensible morally, a shocking violation of trust, incredible from Mr. Taft's Administration, in view of his attitude when Governor-General. Of the repeal of the organic law, which Mr. Lodge is now moving for, we can only say that if it comes to pass, it will reveal anew how firmly the Republican party is in the grasp of the corporate interests. As for the Filipinos, the repeal of the organic law and the sale of the Friar lands would be enough to implant the seeds of revolution in the hearts of all who learn of it. It would mean a new motto: "The Philippines for the land-grabber, the exploiter, the Trust, the conscienceless corporation."

CULTURE AND DEMOCRACY.

The letter from President Woodrow Wilson which appears elsewhere in this issue it gives us particular pleasure to print. We hasten to add, however, that we were not in need of the assurance with which it closes. "I beg you will not believe," says Mr. Wilson, "that because I seem incapable of stating more than one side of a question in any one speech, I do not know and appreciate the other side." It is not the state of President Wilson's own mind that has caused us to criticise one or two of his utterances. On the contrary, it is because he is the very kind of man who inherently stands for the value and dignity of learning and culture that we regretted to see him, whether consciously or not, adding force to a current that sets strongly against them. There has been in recent years a remarkable spread of the idea that the only result worth caring for in the work of our colleges is what can be measured by definite external achievement; an idea which, though it may be but the exaggeration of a sound and laudable sentiment, is nevertheless doing serious mischief. Were it to become dominant it would sap the vitality of our colleges in the performance of what has been, and ought to continue to be, one of their chief functions. There is room in the world, and there is need in the world, for men of quiet tastes and of keen intellectual interests; men who modestly and faithfully fulfil their duties as citizens, neighbors, friends, but who are not by nature gifted with either the powers or the inclinations necessary for leaders in the world of business enterprise or of political struggle. Nor can we easily imagine a more serious loss to the life of a nation than would come from depriving such men of a recognized and respectable place in it.

The view against which we are protesting has been prompted, above all, by the great preacher of strenuosity. Mr. Roosevelt has omitted no opportunity to impress upon the young men of the country the doctrine that any life not chiefly concerned with "doing things" is a life to be looked upon with contempt. Properly understood, we should probably all agree with the ex-President. But there is no mistaking the sense in which he has meant to be understood and in which he has been

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understood. The "mollycoddles," whom he never tires of belaboring, are not creatures of the imagination. When he holds them up to public scorn, he means something definite. It is not a harmless recluse here and there that he has in mind; these extremely rare birds of our American human fauna would certainly not be worth the great hunter's powder and shot. He means, and he has been understood to mean, a somewhat considerable class in our American citizenship; a class which, we are free to admit, could be dispensed with at less sacrifice of the primary requisites of the national life than could the more strenuous type of which Mr. Roosevelt himself is the extreme specimen. But we contend that our country is not so poor, not so hard-driven by fate, that it must confine its desires or its expectations to the fulfilment of the primary requirements of national life. Nor have we ever been able to see that the multiplication of men devoted to intellectual interests has been going on at so dangerous a rate as to constitute an imminent peril to the nation.

Of a type as nearly opposite to that of Col. Roosevelt as can well be imagined, President Eliot has nevertheless given a curious illustration of the influence of the prevailing current. At least, no other explanation seems so plausible of his extraordinary doctrine of the five-foot shelf. It is scarcely possible that Dr. Eliot should have seriously believed that everybody could become a liberally educated man by a half hour's reading every day of a list of books prescribed once for all. But he could not even have fallen into the momentary error of making such an assertion had there not taken place in his mind some sort of undermining of the position of a liberal education. That nothing is of very much consequence which is not accessible to everybody; that the peculiar, the remote, the thing that calls for special exertions and special tastes and special spiritual endowment, is a thing scarcely worth considering among the important acquisitions of life—this is the sort of view which, alien as it must seem to the whole of Dr. Eliot's life and character, must yet have been at the bottom of the five-foot shelf escapade. And it is of a piece with the Rooseveltian levelling strenuosity; of a piece with the new cult which would make democracy and self-contained individuality mutually exclusive terms.

The great danger that threatens this Republic, we are all agreed, comes from the concentration of interest upon the accumulation of wealth, from the love of luxury, ostentation, and plutocratic power. That has been the prolific source of corruption in politics and business; that has been the prolific breeder of discontent, of class antagonism, of socialistic and anarchistic agitation. The dangers thus arising must be fought by a sturdy citizenship arrayed against it under the inspiration of strong and aggressive leaders. But it is idle to attempt to recruit every man into active service in this war; it is still more idle to exhort every man to fit himself for the post of a captain or a general in it. We hold no man exempt from the faithful performance of the ordinary duty which, by common consent, falls upon all the citizens of a republic: the duty of forming a conscientious and intelligent judgment, and fearlessly acting in accordance with that judgment. Those who do more shall be duly appreciated; those who do most shall be held in the highest honor. For the great majority, however, there is no question of a life of notable and strenuous service for the community. The question for them is, what they are going to make out of life in the pursuit of one or another of the ordinary vocations of mankind. And of all the ways of meeting this question, there is none that can be more useful, in this very struggle against the dangers of materialism and plutocracy in which Mr. Wilson is so brave a leader, than that which contributes to holding up before the eyes of all men some other goal than the possession of power or the boast of pecuniary success.

TWO FRONTIERSMEN.

It is an odd reflection that the future literary historian who seeks the greatest American writer of the end of the nineteenth century will pretty surely have to choose between Mark Twain and Henry James. None of their contemporaries, we feel, has so fully realized his native gift. Mark Twain and Henry James have apparently gone as far as it is possible to go in diametrically opposite directions. Yet there is a point at which their talents meet. Both are essentially frontiersmen. Mark Twain is the chronicler *par excellence* of the palpable frontier of robust America; Henry James is the scrupulous analyst of that spiritual frontier which unrobust and nostalgic America established in the old country. Each has brought to his chosen material a singular expertness and fidelity. If Mark Twain has stretched his muscles and spent his sympathy from the Mississippi to the Sierras, Henry James has no less lived strenuously through the more sombre spiritual adventure of the American in Europe.

Sooner or later, sociologists will take account of a significant reciprocal movement. Just as America has attracted the alert, muscular, and hopeful hordes of Europe who seek material prosperity, so Europe has obsessed the gentler, more discursive, and brooding imaginations of a certain type of Americans. It is easy to dismiss them, once for all, as bad Americans. A careful reading of Henry James's novels would prompt a more pitying judgment. Through their lack of simplicity and of constructive energy these people are aliens in their own land. They long for certain fruits of leisure and joys of reflection that it supplies in rather short measure. They are oppressed by the sense of a relentless activity the value of which they are forced to question. Whether they go to Europe or stay, they are in a manner outlanders, and where they settle in numbers there is a spiritual frontier.

It is needless to say that Henry James is their prophet. That he is their advocate, it would be hazardous to assert. With them he shares the habit of suspending judgment in favor of simple observation. Their minds and his are possibly never made up. A kindred destiny forces them to seek a lodging-place amid the graceful forms and complicated allurements of relatively finished civilizations.

Now, the characteristic of Mark Twain's people is that their minds are made up on all main issues. They laugh at themselves and their neighbors, but they never ask the paralyzing question *cui bono?* For them anything and everything is worth while. Their extreme exemplar is the Yankee at King Arthur's Court. It never occurs to them to see the other side. Why is "Innocents Abroad" an infinitely diverting book? Partly, we think, because the innocents are so supremely unconscious of the fact

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that the gods are laughing not with them, but at them. No other writer has created so many forth-right efficient persons; no one so fully grasped the stalwart *insouciance* which is the very genius of outward America.

How exterior Mark Twain was, it is difficult to imagine. It was at once his superiority and his limitation. One may say that the philosopher in the man almost never slopped over into his books. His concern was with action, and it is significant that when he essayed what he probably regarded as higher flights, not the novel but sheer romance was the result—"Joan of Arc." He is akin to the great impersonal geniuses who have made the picaresque tale classic—the Le Sages, the Defoes, the Smolletts. His manner grew inevitably out of his matter. It was plain, forceful, with the effective inelegant flexibility of life itself. In a high degree, he was creative. He set forth in flesh and blood pretty much all that Whitman intimated in nebulous and rhythmical metaphysic. A great figure who knew his bent and followed it to culmination with instinctive and unperturbed consistency.

An equal fidelity to his vision distinguishes Henry James. Being complicated, he has disdained to make it simpler than it is. Every phase of the soul yearning for orderliness amid the tumult of mere deeds—all the pathos of the temperament vainly seeking congenial forms—he has fathomed and exemplified. Is Europe a home, a casual inspiration, a mere narcotic? Such problems he never settles. Enough that it draws those pioneers who at home find no space for dreams. As Mark Twain was predestined to be a clear writer, Henry James was fated to be a difficult and obscure one. Mark Twain's material has bounds—is as apparent as a pack train on a sky line. Henry James's material leads him to deeper mental involutions, border-line stuff, where the landmarks are matter of conjecture.

Of these two great writers whose stars have led them to antipodal frontiers, which will the future choose? We are not in a position to answer. Possibly the future will perceive the value of Mark Twain's four-square pioneers, whereas, when America has absorbed her nostalgics, Henry James's people may look like odd and incredible figments. We rather think that some place may be found for them beside other exemplars of disillusion—Pater's Marius and Byron's melancholy Childe. And obviously the ultimate preference will depend largely upon whether the choice is by life or by art. On either score, Mark Twain's chances seem pretty good, while the fate of Mr. James's delicate art seems to be involved in the hesitancy that afflicts his own heroes.

UNNECESSARY QUESTIONS.

In the way of serious comment, it may be proper to point out that the results of the Census, though as yet unknown, are bound to show that for increase of population, wealth, and happiness, we are still far ahead of all other nations. But most of the comment at the present stage of the nose-counting is of a distinctly humorous quality. It consists in pointing out the Spartan inflexibility with which the Director of the Census insists on getting the obvious answer to a perfectly useless question. Why is it essential to the success of our decennial enumerations that the head of every family shall be called upon to state that his sons are males and his daughters females; that not only is he of white descent and his wife of white descent, but that their children are also of white descent; that his youngest son, aged two, has never been in the military or naval service of the United States, and that his venerable grandfather, aged eighty-six, has not attended school since September 30 last? Is not all this a waste of good paper and ink and time?

The waste may be there, but it is the kind of waste that enters into the most intimate phases of life. The questions that really shape human happiness in the daily life are perfectly obvious questions. The replies that count are the replies which the questioner knew he would get and was even prepared to insist upon getting. What reply does the minister await when he asks the man and woman who have appeared before him whether they are willing to be joined in lawful wedlock? What reply does the minister await when he asks the parents of the newborn infant whether they are willing to have the child baptized into the community of the redeemed? What is all ritual as it has been drawn to meet all the needs of the heart, but a preordained order of questions and answers? In birth and in burial, in joy and in sorrow, for those who have escaped shipwreck and those who have escaped the plague, the practice of the ages has laid down formulas which the pious soul does not find the less acceptable because they are ready made. Question and response as ordered in the book of prayer are solemn largely to the extent to which they are ordained by long practice. The clergyman who puts the question the communicant waits for, the communicant who pronounces the reply it is incumbent on him to utter, are partners in the solemn ratification of a treaty wherein the old formalities are based on a present and active consent.

The mumbled question that is seldom heard and the traditional reply that is seldom listened to, make up the ordinary meeting of minds in the great routine of life. The clerk in court stares at the wall and repeats his formula beginning "Dyousolemnlyswear" and ending "swelpyougod," and the witness on the stand answers impatiently "I do." The Chief Justice of the United States asks the President-elect if he will be faithful to the Constitution and the duties of his office, and the President-elect invariably says that he will. The candidate for American citizenship is asked whether he hereby renounces all allegiance to foreign kings, emperors, and potentates, and responds fervently that he does. The member-elect is called upon to state whether he promises to live up to the laws and by-laws of the organization and never fails to give his promise to do so. The insurance examiner asks you whether you have ever been afflicted with asthma, bronchitis, calculus, dementia, erysipelas, and a hundred other visitations, to all of which he himself solemnly replies "No."

We are in the habit of speaking of the increase of human knowledge and of the thirst for information which persists in asking questions about the North Pole and the currents of the air and the unfathomed depths of the sea. But for every question calling for an unascertained answer, there are a million asked every day in which the reply is preordained. In so many laboratories there are biologists putting questions to their microscope; in so many offices are clients putting questions to their counsel; in so many other offices are anxious men and women putting

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questions to their physicians. But great as their total must be, it is quite insignificant in proportion to the number of questions that are put during the course of a single day, in all the schoolrooms of the world. A greater amount of human intercourse has centred about the multiplication table than about all the spectacular achievements of science since the beginning of time.

If anything were needed to emphasize the importance to man of a well-adjusted scheme of query and response, it is only necessary to recall how suspicious and uneasy and discontented most of us are in the presence of an unfamiliar reply to a familiar question. If we were to ask a stranger whom he regarded as the greatest dramatist of all time, and he were to say Shaw instead of Shakespeare, the effect would be the same in kind, if not in degree, as if one were to ask the same man whether he liked coffee or tea for breakfast, and he said he preferred arsenic. It would be almost as if, when one said to one's hostess, "Well, I suppose I have stayed quite long enough," she were to yawn and say, "Yes, I think you had better be going."

THE IMPROVEMENT OF THE TEXT-BOOK.

The history of what has become known as the text-book forms an important part of the annals of American education in the last half-century. The name indicates the idea that a book represents the essential teachings concerning a subject, as the text of a sermon represents, or is supposed to represent, the chief doctrines of the discourse itself.

The text-book is a teacher of teachers. If it is not a force which the teacher may substitute for himself, or as the text of an author stands for the great truths which the commentator interprets, it is at least a condition through which the teacher presents a subject to the class. The wise teacher and large uses many text-books for his own training, and for suggesting to himself the most effective methods of teaching. The text-book also remains for the student a permanent treasure-house, where he may refresh his own declining memory, and whence he may draw specific facts for his own use.

The more obvious change in the character of text-books in recent years relates to the part of the publisher. The book has become a far better book, both to the eye and to the hand. The paper is firmer, the ink blacker, the type easier for the eye, and the different forms of type serve to represent more clearly and impressively the primary and subordinate truths presented. The composition is also fairer, the binding more lasting and more artistic. The illustrations and plates of many sorts are chosen with greater care and with a better adjustment to the text, and are executed with finer taste.

The fundamental change, however, wrought in the text-book during this period, is that it is written for the purpose of teaching the pupil and not for the purpose of presenting a subject. The point of view has absolutely changed. The author of the text-book of the former time desired to give a scientific statement regarding his subject; the author of the present time desires to teach students. It is important, imperatively important, to make at times a scientific statement of a subject, but that work is distinct from the purpose of teaching boys and girls. A better psychology has come to prevail. The text-book represents a desire to adjust truths and the presentation of truths to the mind of the pupil. A careful study has been made by the makers of books of the content of children's minds. They have sought to adjust the progress of their instruction to the enlarging growth and increasing power of those who will use the book. The best text-book of the generation represents the union of two elements—a proper knowledge of the subject and a proper knowledge of the mind of the child.

Allied to this psychological condition is also the fact that the text-book has come to relate itself to the present or the future needs of the student. The authors of these more modern volumes have pictured to themselves the lives which these boys and girls are to live, and the work which they are to do. They have sought to make their books of practical value, adopting a clear interpretation of the ability of pupils. They have also found it not difficult to try to be of special service in their future careers. They have recognized that these boys are to become clerks and merchants, and these girls heads of homes and heads of school-rooms, as well as to be daughters at home. Under this conception of the student's future, changes revolutionary have been made in the text-books on almost every subject.

In that old and absorbing subject of arithmetic, the change has been fundamental and is characteristic. It has resulted in simplifying the whole treatment of numbers. It has cast out "true discount," which was never "true," and has given real discount which is constantly used. It has eliminated that trying topic of "equation of payments," a topic quite useless in our present currency, and also "permutations" and "combinations." It has resulted in introducing into the problems of arithmetic facts which are immediate and vital. In one practical text-book, under problems of magnitude are introduced questions on the building and furnishing of a house. Bills for lumber, for plastering, for carpets, for papering, for laying out a garden and grounds, are topics considered.

In geography the change is hardly less fundamental. School geography has ceased to be concerned only with mere facts and with exterior descriptions, and has become an interpretation of the world and of its peoples. It has come to represent the reasoning processes about the globe and its inhabitants; it has become physical, and the physical has become psychological, and it has also become social.

History, too, has taken on the elements of a story of the life, the customs, and the thoughts of nations and peoples. Wars no longer consume a large part of the interest. Kings and queens do not command so great a share of the student's attention. The way in which people live, day by day, the books they read, the way they earn and spend their money, and the amount of money they earn or spend, the food they eat, the houses in which they live, the topics about which they talk, the schools to which they go, have become quite as important in the thought of makers of text-books as the story of Victoria's reign or the downfall of either of the Napoleons.

In a word, the text-book is humanized. It has come to be written with a desire to adjust itself to the mental state and growth of students. It has also sought to follow the needs of the future life of these same students.

These books, moreover, represent a manner of writing far superior to that obtaining in the earlier examples. The primary qualities of good style are more common. Other elements which, though not so essential as clearness and force, are frequently, even if not constantly, found. There are rhetorics which are themselves examples of good rhetoric, and grammars which in their writing inspire pupils to write correctly, and historical text-books written by masters of historical composition.

In one department has occurred not so much a revolution as an expansion. In English literature the student has been brought into a reading of the great authors themselves. The reading book of the earlier time taught the student to read, but it offered him little worth reading. The new book not only aids in getting the art of reading, but it also offers the best which our literature contains. The result represents the enrichment of the mind and the strengthening of the character by the noblest wealth of the race.

I wish, further, to add that in the improvement of the text-book for the American school and college in the last

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half-century, the publisher has borne a necessary and efficient part. Pecuniary motives have influenced, but they have not proved to be the only incentives to this high service. He has also desired to make books which should result in the enhancement of the welfare of the community. He has come to recognize that the community is more urgently demanding the most effective books for giving training and culture. To this end he has used every force for securing the best writers.

The result is that, through this interest and other causes, the school-books of to-day are far superior to those of the middle decades of the last century. They are, on the whole, better than those of any people, though in respect to a certain deftness and beautiful clearness of writing the French are superior.

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BJÖRNSTJERNE BJÖRNSON.

By the death of Björnstjerne Björnson, Norway has lost her chief interpreter. The world at large will not mourn for him as it did for Ibsen or for Grieg; but loyal Norwegians feel that he has been their most representative countryman for above half a century, and that they have lost a leader, the like of whom they cannot hope to see again. Throughout a long life of seventy-eight years, the vigorous poet has been an unwearying champion of national causes—a great patriot and a great democrat.

Björnson was the son of a poor parson, the grandson of a peasant. Born in 1832, he passed the first six years of his life in a desolate region, high up in the Dovre Mountains. Then his father moved to a beautiful, sunlit parish in Romsdal, where views of mountain and fjord filled the boy, he tells us, with ecstasy of joy, but with yearning also beyond his power to explain. There he dwelt among peasants, witnessed their happy, if narrow lives, and developed for them that understanding and sympathy which was later to quicken his tales of the countryside. From the age of twelve to seventeen, he attended school at Molde, where, neglecting study, he steeped himself in the sagas of the ancient North and sought the secret of their sinewy style. Then, with growing pride of nationality, there came to him a vision of a reinvigorated Norway, once more independent and proud. He started a little hand-written paper, and named it *Liberty*. In 1849, he went to Christiania to prepare for the university, and became intimate, amongst others, with Vinje, the peasant poet, the novelist, Jonas Lie, a congenial comrade, and Ibsen, "intense and thin, with complexion like gypsum, underneath a coal-black, extravagant beard." Ibsen's first play appeared in 1848; Björnson's was written in 1851. Significantly, the former dealt with Catiline, and has world-wide appeal; the latter had a Northern heroine, Valborg, and dealt (we are informed) with emigration. After a stimulating sojourn in Christiania, and another year in Romsdal, Björnson finally decided to abandon his father's plan of having him enter the ministry, and arranged to live independently by his pen. In 1853 he began work as a journalist, dramatic critic, and newspaper correspondent. His articles at once revealed an eager nature, provocative of dispute. "Norway for the Norwegians" became his insistent plea, and, thanks to his energy and personal magnetism, he soon rallied an enthusiastic body of young men to his side. Most strenuously he opposed the Danification of the stage, and with such success that after a few years the alien party in control of the Christiania theatre completely lost its hold. Henceforth Norwegian drama was to be presented there by Norwegian actors alone.

During this period, the poet grew steadily, and some of his best literary work was now achieved. Eighteen hundred and fifty-seven is the memorable date of "Synnöve Solbakken," when was inaugurated that series of inimitable peasant tales which is likely to form the chief basis of his permanent fame: "Arne," perhaps the finest of them all, appeared in 1858, "A Happy Boy" in 1860, and "The Fisher Maiden" in 1868. In 1858, he published two saga-dramas, "Between the Battles" and "Lame Hulda," not works of first rate importance, but virile and earnest, and calculated to stir deep feeling in the nation. Already he had visited Copenhagen; in 1860, he travelled to Italy, where he remained the greater part of three years. Thence he sent home other works, among which were two historical plays, a trilogy on the Norwegian pretender "Sigurd Slembe," and "Mary Stuart in Scotland," the latter a distinct dramatic success. "The Newly Married" (1865), a realistic comedy which showed Björnson in an entirely new style, also added greatly to his renown. A yearly stipend was now voted to him by the government, and at the same time he became director of the Christiania theatre and editor of the *Norske Folkeblad*. But his forte was soon seen not to lie in administration: he lacked consistency, discretion, and balance. In 1870 appeared his remarkable epic poem "Arnljot Gelline," in which he represents the forces of heathendom and Christianity in tremendous clash; also another saga-drama, "Sigurd the Crusader," of no great merit; and a collection of "Poems and Songs," where, on the contrary, his lyric genius manifested itself abundantly.

For several years ensuing, Björnson occupied himself chiefly with politics. In all issues he took the radical side, and often aroused bitter antagonism and animosity, not the least because he now deliberately abandoned the narrow orthodoxy of the Lutheran State Church. Though at this time he produced no works of æsthetic value, he advanced in maturity of thought, and emancipated himself in more than one way from the parochialism of his youth. In 1874 an astonished but admiring public witnessed his realistic play, "A Bankruptcy," dealing with the problem of business ethics, which reaches very near the high-water mark of his dramatic achievement. It was soon followed by "The Editor," an open attack on the methods of the defamatory press, which the theatre directors at first found too personal and refused to present. In "The King" (1877) he satirized the institution of monarchy. And continuously since, in play and novel, he has handled present problems of social life. In "A Glove" he repudiated the conventional idea of unequal demands for sexual morality on the part of men and women. In "The New System" he handled satirically, and as if from personal experience, the baneful influences of a petty state on great achievement. "Geography and Love," in a lighter vein, seems like a quizzical acknowledgment of his own self-absorption at the expense of his family. "Beyond Human Power" (1883) deals with the question of faith-healing, and this, its first part (the second appeared in 1899), was as original and powerful a play as Björnson has written. Of his later novels, "The Heritage of the Kurts" and "In the Ways of God" are the most noteworthy. The former is a grimly intense study of heredity, the latter a strong plea for divorce. Björnson's manner in these and in his other recent works is a far cry from that of his youth—realism for romanticism, satire for gentleness. To the end, however, the poet preserved his force of expression, and his latest plays, especially "Paul Lange and Tora Parsberg" (1898) and "Laboremus" (1901), bear witness to his astonishing vitality and versatility.

In 1874 Björnson purchased an estate at Aulestad in Gausdal. There he has lived much of the time since, and there many foreigners have enjoyed his hospitality. Meanwhile he has travelled extensively in Europe, and in 1880 he made a prolonged visit to America. Despite his cosmopolitan associations, Björnson remained to old age Norwegian in every fibre; his style, though always original, never lacked the stamp of national peculiarity.

The characteristics of his early prose recall those of the Old Norse sagas. From them he learned the power of incisive epithet, succinct description, and significant suggestion. In accord with them, he displays impersonality of attitude, willingness to let his characters speak for themselves without comment or preachment on the author's part. In them he also found a model for the use

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of lyrics as a constituent part of the narrative, which, notably in "Arne" (where the story may be said to be keyed in one song), contributes so much to the effectiveness of his work. The impression is too often given by critics that these tales, being pastoral and idyllic, are vague and unreal like many other sentimental stories of country folk. As a matter of fact, they are strikingly detailed and definite, although they convey a sense of glamour in situation and their characters seem all more or less poetic in temper. Never have actuality and illusion been more imaginatively blended for the reader's delight. These tales have about them an indescribable charm—that mysterious, appealing something which, as an Old Norse writer says, "it is better to have than to be without." Their simplicity has the complexity of nature, their restraint the distinction of confident art.

In pure lyric verse no Norwegian has equalled Björnson. Beneficent like the sun in the meadow, jubilant and dancing, full of fancy and fire, of earnestness, tenderness, and pathos, Björnson's verses respond to the varying moods of his people. There is something haunting, something of trolldom, both in his joy and melancholy. For Norwegians he is in poetry what Grieg is in music. It is hard to choose examples, when so many present themselves. "Over the High Mountains" voices strongly the deep longing of the limited; "Olaf Trygvason" is admirable in its rapid effect; "Bergliot" is a stirring renewal of a saga-scene; and no one can hear Norwegians sing the national hymn, "Yes, we love that land," without sharing their emotion. It is not that Björnson's lyrics are perfect in technique—many show serious offences against prosody—but their spontaneity and freshness cover their faults. They mount seemingly unbidden from the well-springs of a born poet's heart.

It is in his dramas that Björnson shows most clearly the defects of his qualities. His geniality led him sometimes to swerve from the naturally inevitable when that seemed too severe to ordinary view; out of sheer friendliness he was sometimes inclined to mitigate justice for his characters, and to compromise with logic; implacable fate was beyond his power to execute. His zeal made him a prey to didacticism; his enthusiasms betrayed him into extravagance; his mercurial temperament denied him consistency; his pictorial instinct limited his care for subtlety of effect. He was the people's poet, and he ministered to their needs.

Björnson differs from Ibsen as much as two men living in the same land, age, and general environment could well do. By nature Björnson was akin to Thor, the Northern peasants' god, who gleefully swung his mighty hammer in giantland, ever eager to save the race of men from evil powers—yet naïve, gullible, able to see only one thing at a time, sentimental, insensitive, fond of his kind. On the other hand, Ibsen seems like the heir of Odin, the god of viking chieftains, who from a high seat surveyed the whole world, whilst his ravens, Memory and Thought, perched on his shoulders, whispered words of wisdom in his ear—calm, cautious, critical, caustic, aloof, and alone. Björnson was beloved, to the point of reverence, for his geniality, his ready sympathy, his mighty blows against evil and the foes of his land—primordial virtues. Ibsen was admired, to the point of awe, for his subtlety, his keen intelligence, his dexterity of thrust in combats of the mind, his ability to win renown abroad—virtues of the sophisticated elect. Björnson, it is true, experienced often at home "the proud man's contumely"; but he endured this with little pain, steadily encouraged by the confidence of many supporters: in life he had his reward. Ibsen was long disregarded, if not scorned, by his fellows both high and low; late and reluctant were the honors awarded him: in death his fame grows from more to more.

Two years ago the present writer saw Björnson for the last time. Then, in the course of conversation, the marvellous old man recited a short poem that he had composed many years before, in substance as follows:

I choose April; in it the old falls; in it the new takes root; it brings a little turmoil—yet peace is not the best, but that one something wills. I choose April because it storms and revels, because it smiles and melts, because it force possesses, because it powers upsets—in it is summer born.

"That's it," he said with a smile; "there you have me in a nutshell. I am an April poet."

WILLIAM HENRY SCHOFIELD.

Cambridge, Mass.

NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

Among Charles Lamb's associates at Christ's Hospital was John Matthew Gutch. In 1800 Lamb was lodging with him in Chancery Lane, and no doubt they carried on a correspondence for many years though two letters only from Lamb to Gutch seem to have survived. Gutch moved to Bristol and worked his way to distinction as editor of one of the most flourishing provincial newspapers, *Felix Farley's Bristol Journal*. He was a great admirer of the writings of George Wither, and, having a printing office at his disposal, he put many of Wither's poems into type, being, as he says, "encouraged to proceed in his selection by his warm-hearted friend and school-fellow, Charles Lamb." A set of printed sheets, forming two volumes, interleaved throughout with quarto paper was sent to Lamb early in 1810. Lamb's letter, acknowledging their receipt, first printed by Gutch in 1847, is, in part, as follows:

The books have pleased me excessively; I should think you could not have made a better selection. I never saw "Philarete" before—judge of my pleasure. I could not forbear scribbling certain critiques in pencil on the blank leaves. Shall I send them, or may I expect to see you in town? Some of them are remarks on Wither and his writings. Do you mean to have anything of that kind? What I have said on "Philarete" is poor, but I think some of the rest not so bad; perhaps I have exceeded my commission in scrawling over the copies; but my delight therein must excuse me, and pencil-marks will rub out.

Gutch, awful vandal! seems to have followed Lamb's suggestion, at least to some extent, and to have copied over these notes in ink on other blank leaves, and then erased Lamb's autograph writing in pencil. He seems to have added also many notes of his own (at least they cannot now be identified as Lamb's), and then to have submitted the volumes to Dr. John Nott, also of Bristol. Nott, on his part, added, in pencil, copious notes and comments, some referring to Wither's writings, others to the manuscript notes by Lamb and Gutch.

Some time after, but probably before 1818, the volumes once more came into Lamb's possession, and he put together portions of his original notes, and printed them in the two-volume edition of his "Works," published in that year, as the well-known essay "On the Poetical Works of George Wither." Then, or later, he seems to have gone through Gutch's volumes again, adding new notes and correcting errors. Dr. Nott's comments exasperated him, and many of these new notes are sarcastic remarks on him and his critical ability, with frequent puns upon his name. At the same time (we may suppose) Lamb signed his initials "C. L." to some of his longer early notes. In two instances he has written "C. L. thus far," indicating that portions only were his. Gutch, writing in 1847, mentions the fact that the volumes went a second time to Lamb, saying: "These pencil marks Charles Lamb afterwards requested the editor to return to him, and they formed the matter of one of his papers in the collection of his works first published in 1818." He does not mention, however, that he himself had erased Lamb's "pencil marks" and copied them over in ink!

Perhaps it was when the books came a second time in his possession that Lamb wrote his name in each volume—the unusual and rare full signature "Charles Lamb"—in Vol. I at the top of the recto of the first of the blank leaves, and in Vol. II on the printed half-title of the book. He then presented the two volumes to James Brook Pulham, a fellow-worker with him at the East India House, and each volume contains an inscription. Pulham is chiefly known as the artist whose pencil drew and needle etched the full length portrait of Lamb which has often been reproduced. Lamb sent one of these etchings to Coleridge on June 1, 1826, and said that the likeness was "stolen from my person at one of my unguarded moments by some too partial artist, and my friends are pleased to think that he has not much flattered me." And, further, "The painter, whoever he was, seems to have taken me in one of those disengaged moments, if I may so term them, when the native character is so much more honestly displayed than can be possible in the restraints of an enforced sitting attitude. Perhaps it rather

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described me as a thinking man than a man in the act of thought."

Pulham may have received the books about this time, as he has inserted in Vol. II the original pencil drawing of his portrait of Lamb, and in Vol. I a proof of the engraving, before the lettering was put upon the plate. The second volume also contains an impression of the print, with lettering: "Scratched on Copper from Life in 1825 by his friend Brook Pulham." Pulham is not mentioned in the Dictionary of National Biography, though he seems to have had literary tastes. He brought together a wonderful collection of material, printed, and manuscript, relating to George Wither, and wrote a sketch of the life of Wither, which appears to have been printed. His library was sold shortly after his death, in 1861, and the Grolier Club owns a copy of the Catalogue. The two interleaved volumes of Wither are there described as follows:

Fair Virtue—The Shepheards Hunting—Abuses Stript and Whipt, 2 vols. Reprinted by Mr. Gutch from the editions of 1622.

Interleaved and Illustrated with numerous Manuscript notes by Charles Lamb, by whom the volumes were presented to the late Mr Pulham. The second volume contains the original pencil full-length portrait of Lamb by Mr. Pulham, from which he made his well-known etching.

They brought £2 10s., but the purchaser's name cannot be traced. Later they were acquired by Swinburne and were described by him in his Essay "Charles Lamb and George Wither," first printed in the *Nineteenth Century* for January, 1885, and collected in the volume "Miscellanies" published the next year.

Swinburne seems to have been cautious in describing the manuscript and was, apparently, uncertain as to which of the earlier annotations were in Lamb's own autograph. In fact, in reading his article the impression is received that most of the annotations are autographic. While the volumes were in Swinburne's possession, they were examined by Canon Ainger, and, from his account we are led to think that Lamb's own annotations form the bulk of the manuscript. Lucas, the latest editor of Lamb, seems not to have examined the volumes himself, but reprints Swinburne's description. Swinburne, on his death, gave his manuscripts and books to his friend Watts-Dunton, who promptly disposed of the major part of them, and these volumes of Wither, as well as many of his manuscripts have come to America. The annotated Wither has been acquired by John A. Spoor of Chicago and finds its proper place in his wonderful collection of material relating to Charles Lamb.

Aside from the two presentation inscriptions, the volumes contain on the margins of the printed sheets or on the blank pages of the inserted leaves, many notes and memoranda in ink or pencil, in Charles Lamb's autograph, of which the following are a selection:

VOLUME I.

Facing p. 5. The initials "C. L." (in "a large dancing hand" as Swinburne describes them) and the word "Stuff" affixed to a marked out paragraph above. The Introductory remarks headed "Fair Virtue, or the Mistress of Philarete," which fill the preceding five pages, are certainly Lamb's composition and were, in large part, printed by him in the Essay on Wither in his "Works," 1818. This was apparently originally written by Lamb, in pencil, on the pages facing pp. 7 to 13. Considerable portions of the essay are still decipherable on the blank pages facing p. 12 and p. 13.

Facing p. 48. "Meanly is simply *in a mean* or in *moderation.*" This in reply to a note by Dr. Nott.

Facing p. 70. "Endeared?" suggested for "endured" as printed in the line "Jove's endured Ganimed."

Facing p. 76. "Qu. Spenser & Sidney," written below an earlier note "Lodge and Sidney."

Facing p. 122. "Then why give it one?" In reply to an earlier note "The beauty of this passage is too apparent to need a comment."

Facing p. 204. Initials "C. L." The notes to "The Shepherds Hunting" filling the pages facing pp. 204 and 205 were originally written by Lamb in pencil on the pages facing 211 to 215, and much of it can now be read, sometimes the assistance of a glass being necessary.

Facing p. 262. Initials "C. L." The whole of the paragraph, ten lines, is certainly Lamb's composition.

Facing p. 265. Initials "C. L." The paragraph is certainly Lamb's composition. There are evidences of pencil-writing not now decipherable above the note. Very probably this was the original note written by Lamb.

P. 267. "Better spell it rusteling, as in Edit. 1620."

Facing p. 268. "Sadness (*i. e.* Sobriety or Sanity) oppos'd to madness; gladness is quite unantithetical, & meaningless C. L."

Facing pp. 285 and 286. The quotation from Milton at the bottom of p. 285 and top of p. 286 was evidently written by Lamb in pencil on the page facing p. 286, and can still be deciphered. Dr. Nott wrote below this quotation, "Why is this quoted? I see little similarity." When the books came again into Lamb's possession he wrote, in his own autograph: "It was quoted for those who *can* see. I. I. I. I. I. in Capitals—for shame, write *your* Ego thus little i with a dot stupid Nott!"

Facing p. 336. "Damn the Public & you, too, thou Bellua nullius capitis!"

VOLUME II.

Facing p. iv. "C. L. thus far." The matter on the four pages facing pp. i to iv was originally written in pencil by Lamb on the pages facing pp. 1 to 4, and portions can still be readily deciphered.

P. xxix. "in the sense of niceness." Explaining a use of the word "curiosity."

Facing p. 56. "I'll be damn'd if Daw was not his name C. L. Explain this line in any other possible way. Not compare himself with the other, why 'tis the commonest way of speaking, if I did so and so I were a greater fool than he I arraign of folly. But I waste words on this Daw of Daws." This in reply to Nott's comment, "I should doubt this," affixed to an earlier note (probably Lamb's) "I take the name of this man to have been Daw."

Facing p. 77. "Pray expunge your observations, or make them a little more pungent." This is in reply to a comment by Dr. Nott, "There is but little pungency in this either."

Facing p. 86. "Shamrocks." A correction for "sham-roots."

Facing p. 108. "Why double-dull it with thy dull commentary? have you nothing to cry out, but 'very dull,' 'a little better,' 'this has some spirit,' 'this is prosaic,' foh! If the Sun of Wither withdraw a while, Clamour not for joy, *Owl*, it will out again & blear thy envious Eyes." This is in reply to Nott's comment, "A very dull essay, indeed."

Facing p. 117. "I, why not, Nott?" This in reply to Nott's comment, "Who would read this satire twice?"

Facing p. 142. "Is anything else dear to you?" This on Nott's note "dear me!" Lamb has also drawn a line under Nott's "me."

Facing p. 183. "Wither has here made a masculine of Pirene, the muse's fountain. C. L."

Facing p. 186. "To smoke like Bacon." Explaining Wither's phrase "to hang at roof."

Facing p. 196. "You damn'd fool!" The long note on the pages facing pp. 196, 197, and 198, was undoubtedly first written in pencil by Lamb, then copied over in ink perhaps by Gutch. Nott observes, "I cannot think the passage deserves so high an eulogium." Lamb's comment on this is short, as above.

P. 297. "The Puritan pokes out his tender horns here."

Facing p. 320. "Bugs (fool) do not here mean fleas' relations. All this is" [continued on next leaf]

Facing p. 322. "Great Poetry, tho' thou knowest it Nott!" This is written in large letters, and is a comment on Nott's note "bugs! Enough to make a man quake," etc.

P. 354. "analogous?! Why, this note was written to show the *difference*, not the *analogy* between them. C. L."

Facing p. 354. "It was meant to be an odd one, to puzzle a certain sort of people. C. L." Nott had written "this seems an odd association."

Facing p. 354. "C. L. thus far." The matter on these pages, facing pp. 353 and 354 is Lamb's and was first written in pencil on the pages facing pp. 359 and 360. Portions are still legible.

P. 372. "In whose style are thy remarks, in the name of modesty? What bit of discovery hast thou made to entitle thee to sit judge upon Common Place. Why Capel Lofft *may keep aloft* from such as thee." This was brought about by Dr. Nott's remark, referring to an earlier manuscript note: "This is very true, but something in the style of Capel Lofft."

P. 378. A long quotation from Sir Thomas Brown facing pp. 377 and 378, was first written in pencil by Lamb, and portions are still legible.

Facing p. 383. "Not so fond as you to catch him tripping. He speaks passionately; you deride coldly. You sin; he never." This in reply to Nott's note, "How very fond he is of this phrase."

Facing p. 386. "don't you? who the devil are you? what are you, & what are you Not? C. L." This in reply to Nott's note, "I do not think this worth quoting."

Facing p. 407. Initials "C. L." This paragraph was originally written on this same page in pencil by Lamb. Nott remarks, "This should be rewritten with more simplicity." Below, Lamb writes, "it should *Not*, Nott! C. L."

Facing p. 460. "Is that all you have to say on this divine Epigram & the following? O Eloquent in abuse! Niggard where thou shouldst Praise! most *negative Nott!*" This in reply to Nott's note "His quatrain stanzas are much smoother than his couplets."

The final history of Gutch's edition of Wither seems to be uncertain. There is, according to Lucas, a copy in the British Museum, in four volumes, the fourth incomplete. On the fly-leaf is written, "This selection of the Poems of Wither was printed by Gutch of Bristol, about 20 years since, and was edited by Dr. Nott. The work remained unfinished, and was sold for waste paper; a few copies only were preserved. 1839." Another copy, which we have examined, is owned in New York. It is in four volumes, with the title, "Selections from the Juvenilia and Other Poems of George Wither, with a prefatory Essay By John Matthew Gutch, F. S. A., and His Life, by Robert Aris Wilmott, Esq. Vol. I [etc.] Typ. Felix Farley: Bristol." In addition, the first volume has another title-page, "Poems by George Wither, in four volumes. Vol. I. London: 1839." On the verso of this is the following Preface:

These Poems were many years ago edited and printed at Bristol by Mr. Gutch: Proof sheets being submitted to Dr. Nott, and the celebrated Charles Lamb, who wrote some very pithy comments on the Notes of the Doctor, which have not been printed. The work was never completed, and the whole impression was consigned to the "Tomb of the Capulets" and supposed to be effectually destroyed. Now, however, by the resuscitating powers of sundry Bristol Book Chapmen—"Monsieur Tonson's come again!" etc.

Signed "J. R. S." and dated "London, 1839."

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Very few copies could have been made up by the "Bristol Book Chapmen," as the Life by Wilmott has been broken from his "Lives of the Sacred Poets."

Swinburne, unfortunately, has not written his name in the books, as his association with them adds to their interest. One slip of paper used by him as a marker contains two or three words in his autograph.

Correspondence.

CULTURE AND DEMOCRACY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I do not need to tell you that the reports of my recent address in Pittsburgh have, by piecemeal quotation, conveyed an entirely false impression. You yourself have made allowance for this distortion in your kind editorial of this week. The criticism embodied in that editorial is quite just, if the speech be interpreted as you have interpreted it; and I must say I cannot blame you for the misinterpretation. Unfortunately, my mind is a one-track affair on which I can run only one through train at a time. Some of the trains are scheduled in the newspapers because they seem to contain sensational matter. The rest are ignored. I can only assure you, therefore, that I entirely agree with the views of your editorial. It would be inexcusable for any man responsible for the administration of a university to overlook the value of culture and of all that quiet and deeper development of the mind which displays itself in personal poise, in quiet insight, in the finer forms of intellectual power, rather than in public service and material achievement. I can agree with your editorial, because I am not guilty as charged.

If culture be the intimate and sensitive appreciation of moral, intellectual, and æsthetic values, I heartily agree with you that the production of men capable of these deeper insights is one of the things most to be desired in the life and influence of a university. My difficulty is on the side of organization. For, after all, culture is not a thing produced in classrooms, but by the subtler influences of life and association among men of the finer sort of taste and the higher kind of learning. I wish very much that from some quarter, light might be thrown upon the processes by which a university may produce those subtle atmospheric influences in which culture thrives, while the spirit of service and of achievement is not dampened or slackened.

I beg that you will not believe that because I seem incapable of stating more than one side of a question in any one speech, I do not know and appreciate the other side.

WOODROW WILSON.

Princeton University, April 21.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Far be it from me to inform the *Nation* on the interpretation of President Wilson's ideals for colleges in America. But, so far as recognition of the masses rather than the classes and the omission of culture as an end in itself go, is it not true that a young nation requires a different instruction from an adult or mature one? If President Wilson, looking about him, sees that the present need of college training lies in the democratic broadening rather than the intensifying of sensibilities, does it necessarily follow that he is an enemy to the refining influences of culture in the individual? Has it not been Dr. Eliot's effort to do away with "exclusiveness" at Harvard? Not that "choice spirits" in themselves are not the earth's best answer to "culture," but America is still laying foundations, and the college boy for generations to come must help to lay foundations. The country needs now not "choice spirits" so much as practical, honest, disinterested, informed public servants.

G. WALLACE.

New York, April 21.

QUOTATIONS IN CONGRESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Having had occasion lately to turn over the pages of the *Congressional Globe* for a number of years during the anti-slavery controversy, I took the opportunity to note the use our legislators made of the anti-slavery literature. As a student of Lowell and Whittier, I had often wondered (the more so as poets, if there are such, in reform circles of to-day have little weight in determining public opinion) how far their voices carried in the din of controversy.

I found several poetical passages which were not familiar. Amos Tuck of New Hampshire, on January 19, 1848, in a speech on the President's message, quotes the following lines:

> We know no crime in colored skin,
> Nor think the God above
> Could fix the brand of slave upon
> The children of his love.

In the same speech:

> We ask not ye shall snap the links
> That bind you to your dreadful slaves;
> Hug if you will a corpse that stinks,
> And bear it with you to your graves:
> But that you *may* go coupled thus,
> You never shall make slaves of us.

And again this version of the Latin lines:

We know the right, and we approve it too;
We know the wrong, and yet the wrong pursue.

J. J. Slingerland of New York, in a speech on internal improvements, delivered June 22, 1848, applies these Hudibrastic lines to the candidate for the Presidency, Lewis Cass:

> He wires in and wires out,
> And leaves a body still in doubt
> Whether the snake that made the track
> Is going south or coming back.

When John Quincy Adams, on January 25, 1842, introduced the Haverhill petition, perhaps drafted by Whittier, for the dissolution of the Union, he was addressed by T. W. Gilmer of Virginia as one

> Who, in the course of one revolving moon,
> Was poet, fiddler, statesman, and buffoon.

Characteristically, these lines are quoted on February 3 by Adams as gracing a cartoon of himself, which he exhibited to the House, at the same time commenting caustically upon the variant "babbler" substituted for "fiddler," the second line reading, "Is statesman, poet, babbler, and buffoon." In the same speech Adams expresses the hope that the Virginians may feel

> That holy shame which ne'er forgets
> What clear renown it used to wear,
> Whose blush remains when virtue sets,
> To show her sunshine has been there.

I do not know the source of these lines, though the sentiment is familiar enough in both Whittier and Lowell.

I found only one quotation each from Lowell and Whittier. J. G. Palfrey, in a speech on the Territorial Governments, delivered February 26, 1849, quotes, with picturesque application, the lines from "The Pine-Tree":

> Sat with Bibles open, around the council board,
> And answered a king's missive, with a stern
> "Thus saith the Lord!"

To-day the lines are printed:

> Sat in council with their Bibles round the board,
> Answering England's royal missive with a firm,
> "Thus saith the Lord!"

Two days later, J. M. Niles, debating the same subject, quoted the familiar stanza from Lowell's "Stanzas on Freedom," beginning:

> They are slaves who fear to speak.

Dr. Channing is the only anti-slavery writer whose name I saw on the pages of the *Globe*. Isaac Hill, from Virginia, in the Senate, February 12, reprobated the introduction of Dr. Channing's book, obviously on slavery, into the Senate. I have not been able to find the speech referred to. On February 9, 1839, Senator Morris of Ohio, speaking against the contemptuous treatment of petitions, points out the moral pollution of slavery, saying:

> I have deeply deplored this stain upon our national morals; and the words of Dr. Channing have, thousands of times, been impressed upon my mind, that "a slave country reeks with licentiousness."

Quotations from the classic English poets are rather abundant, especially from Shakespeare; lines from Goldsmith and Pope also often occur. I do not know how many times I ran across the familiar

> Vice is a monster of so frightful mien.

There seems, as it were, an occasional epidemic of verse, a subject perhaps for the student of psychologic suggestion. Twice in the same volume the phantom of secession is challenged:

> Never shake thy gory locks at me;
> Thou can'st not say 'I did it.

And surprising, indeed—in the same volume occurs twice the swelling story of the seven in buckram. But this is a digression.

Of course, the question here raised is not the general one: What was the influence of such a man as Whittier? To the answer of that many other circumstances must contribute. But the facts here brought together may be regarded as indicative of the degree of importance attached by practical politicians to the outbursts of the muse; then as now slight. I confess a sense of disappointment that I did not once hear the homely accents of Hosea Biglow rebuking corruption and silencing cant.

WM. H. POWERS.

Brookings, S. D., April 18.

ONE WAY OF MAKING TEXT BOOKS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In view of the deluge of text books which floods the educational world every year, it would be well to decide just how far it is legitimate to use the "scissors and paste-pot method." An interesting phase of the question may be illustrated

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by the procedure of Messrs. Kastner and Atkins in their "Short History of French Literature," which has been quite favorably received. The preface makes the following statement in regard to the authors' indebtedness:

All the leading authorities on French literature, among whom may be mentioned Gaston Paris, Darmesteter, Lanson, Brunetière, Faguet, and Jules Lemaître, have been consulted, and in the case of the most conspicuous writers, the criticisms expressed are based on a first-hand acquaintance with their writings, supported, where possible, by the internal evidence of the works themselves.

The parallel passages given below are not the result of any painstaking search, but merely the outcome of a few days' reading of Lanson's "Histoire de la littérature française," and Derechef's translation of Brunetière's "Manual of the History of French Literature." Other passages might have been cited showing the same similarity. No attempt has been made to find parallels in other secondary sources mentioned by the authors. With the exception of the paragraph quoted above there is no reference to the source of these passages, nor are quotation marks used.

The works of Marot are composed: (a) of translations and allegories, such as the translation of the first two books of the "Metamorphoses," and his "Temple de Cupido," or again his "Enfer"; (b) of *chants royaux, ballades,* and *rondeaux*; (c) of occasional pieces, *étrennes, blasons, complaintes,* etc.; (d) of his translation of fifty of the Psalms. p. 46.	The works of Marot are composed: (1) of Translations and allegories, such as his translation of the "Metamorphoses," bk. I. and II., and his "Temple de Cupido," or again his "Enfer";—(2) of *Chants royaux, Ballades,* and *Rondeaux*;—(3) of *Elegies, Epistles,* and epigrams;—(4) of occasional pieces that figure in anthologies under the titles *Etrennes, Epitaphes, Blasons, Cimetières,* and *Complaints*;—(5) of his translation of fifty of the Psalms. Brunetière, p. 42, note.
His learning is that of the Middle Ages: (a six-line quotation follows) p. 46.	Son érudition est du moyen age: (the same quotation) Lanson, p. 237.
He was lacking in intensity of feeling, picturesqueness of vision, and vividness of style. p. 47.	Marot possessed neither the intensity of feeling, nor the picturesqueness of vision, nor the vividness of style of a poet. Brunetière, p. 41, note.
(Of the "Amours de Cassandre") . . . and partaking rather of the artificial character of old French "courteous" poetry than of the passionate character of modern lyricism. p. 63.	It partakes rather of the artificial character of the "courteous" poetry of our old literature than of the passionate character of modern lyric poetry. Brunetière, p. 58, note.
Moreover, we know that Malherbe's finest poems, which during his lifetime were scattered through, and to some extent lost in, the anthologies of the day, did not appear in collected form till 1630, two years after his death, and that he did not leave any disciples rightly so called. p. 96.	To . . . since his finest poems, which during his lifetime were scattered through and to some extent lost in the anthologies of the period, did not appear in collected form until 1630, two years after his death. Brunetière, pp. 112-113. . . . that he does not appear to have left any disciples rightly so called. Note, p. 120.
It would be almost impossible to be more deficient than he is in enthusiasm, imagination, sensibility, and naturalness. His ideal, as was the case with Ronsard as he grew older, tended towards the entire elimination of the personal element from poetry, and its transformation into oratory. This change responded exactly to the taste of the time. p. 99.	It would be impossible to be more deficient than he is in enthusiasm. . . . His want of imagination. . . . His want of sensibility. . . . Finally his want of naturalness. His ideal, as was the case with that of Ronsard as he grew older, tended towards the entire elimination of the personal element from lyricism;—and in consequence to transform lyricism into oratorical verse. . . . This transformation responded exactly to the taste of the time. Brunetière, p. 19, note.
After the affirmation of his thesis Perrault attempted to prove the truth of it in the famous "Parallèles des Anciens et des Modernes" (1688-1699), adducing six principal reasons for the superiority of the moderns; the fact that they *came later*; the greater exactness of their psychology; their more perfect method of reasoning; the art of printing; Christianity; and, finally, the protection of the king.	Il y a six causes qui font les modernes supérieurs aux anciens dans la littérature; le seul fait d'être venus les derniers, la plus grande exactitude de leur psychologie, leur méthode plus parfait de raisonnement, l'imprimerie, le christianisme, et enfin la protection du roi.
From the first Fontenelle had sided with Perrault. . . . p. 156.	Aux côtés de Perrault s'était rangé dès le premier jour Fontenelle. Lanson, p. 592.
But at bottom Boileau was in a false position; he was a modern himself. . . . p. 156.	Au fond, Boileau était dans une fausse position: il était très "Moderne" lui même. Lanson, p. 593.

One of the most surprising things is that the editors have seemingly preferred to excerpt from the English translation of Brunetière's "Manual." It should seem that in the case of some of "the most conspicuous writers the criticisms expressed are based upon a first hand acquaintance" with Lanson and a second hand acquaintance with Brunetière.

DONALD CLIVE STUART.

Princeton, N. J., April 20.

A PATTERN FOR PARENTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: For those who, passing on the lamp of culture to the youth of our best families, sometimes deplore the influence of home in hindering that high endeavor, the incident here told may be of comfort. Here, at least, let a parent be held up, who realized his duty, and, by his own standard, measured up to it.

I had occasion recently to take to task a gilded creature of New York's best making, for his total lack of those things, the sartorial excepted, which go to make a man polite. I urged upon him that a college junior who wrote, "We eaguriy clamored down the rocks an found he was alright," was wasting his imagination. At the institution which I served we were content to turn out bad spellers of the common kind, but we discouraged originality in any form; and he really must conform more closely to our mould. This, with other things, I told the junior from New York; mark what came of it.

Yesterday he called on me and said: "I told father when I was home vacation what you said, and you know what he done? He fished out a twenty-dollar bill, and said, 'My boy, go buy a spelling-book.'"

Such straws as these foretell a change of weather, surely, and must bring gladness to the hearts that are sighing, "Western wind, when will ye blow?"

SCHOLEMASTER.

New Haven, Conn., April 22.

A QUESTION OF GRAMMAR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: When I went to school we were taught (with great difficulty) that a definition could not run: "Synalœpha is *where* the final vowel of a word is elided before another word beginning with a vowel." Instead, we were made to say: "Synalœpha *is the elision, etc.*" Now, in F. B. Gummere's "Handbook of Poetics" I find several instances of this fashion of definition. On page 105 he writes: "A simile, then, is *where* two objects are presented to the mind for comparison." Since the author is a professor of English, it must, of course, be done advertently. Logically, it seems to me inadmissible; still, I should welcome any adequate authority that would make it possible to indulge the natural inclination of the human mind toward this form of definition. ELIZABETH KNIGHT TOMPKINS.

New York, April 21.

Text Books.

EDUCATION AND PSYCHOLOGY.

"Habit Formation and the Science of Teaching," by Stuart H. Rowe (Longmans), has two purposes: first, to present more fully than has been done in any previous book the psychology of habit; and, secondly, to treat the subject of habit-formation in such a way as to point out to the supervisor or teacher its application to the daily work of the schoolroom. Organization of experience is the underlying process in learning, and this results in ideas and habits. These two types of experience are entirely different. "The first great principle in scientific teaching is to analyze the subject-matter and determine what elements in it are to become habitual." Four important considerations with reference to habit-getting are these; there must be a careful consideration of the habit to be formed; there must be in the mind of the pupil an idea of the habit and of its value to him; there must be abundant practice; and all exceptions must be prevented. Each of these essentials is worked out in much detail in a separate chapter. The author shows that bad habits are best removed by substituting for them good ones. The brief chapter in which the general principles of habit-formation are applied to school discipline and to moral training is one of the most helpful in the volume. The book is, of course, written primarily for the teacher and should be of distinct service in focusing attention upon the importance of habit in education and of planning for its development. But the lessons it contains are for the parent no less than for the teacher. Condensed and stripped of technical language it might be helpful in bringing home to fathers and mothers the importance of a training for which they seem to hold themselves less and less responsible.

"High School Administration," by Horace A. Hollister (Heath), discusses a large number of the problems connected with the organization and management of public high schools in this country. After an historical survey and some discussion of the legal status of the high school, the author

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reaches the central theme of his book—the programme of studies. The school is organized for the presentation of this programme, and out of it arise those questions of administration which are here discussed. A wide knowledge of the conditions at present existing in high schools, both large and small, and an eminently sane and moderate statement of some topics which are frequently subjects of controversy, characterize the book. Perhaps the schools of the Middle West are more frequently and more largely in the author's mind than those of the East. The relation of the high school to the college is presented with fairness to both sides. The chapter on examinations is calculated to emphasize a qualitative rather than a quantitative basis of rating for pupils. The book should prove of large value to beginners in administrative high school work, and will be found very suggestive to all workers in the field of secondary education.

Dr. Felix Arnold's "study in psychology and education," entitled "Attention and Interest" (Macmillan), suffers apparently from having attempted too much in one direction and too little in another. It aims "to clarify and arrange the many facts that have been brought to light in the psychological laboratories" on its subjects. But this task has fallen considerably beyond the author's competency, as it exceeds the power of every living psychologist. Dr. Arnold has gathered his facts well, and his schematic division of them shows no little skill; but much is left to be sighed for in the way of lucidity. On the other hand, in feeling himself "bound not to uphold any special theory or school, but present the facts as they seem to be," the writer suffers from a paralyzing conscientiousness or else timidity. What is known about attention and interest simply cannot be presented, at this hour, save largely in terms of what is conjectured. Simply to tell off the results of many experiments is to leave the student in worse confusion than before, inasmuch as the very methods of investigation frequently presuppose some general working hypotheses. When Dr. Arnold turns to the practical bearings of his psychological topics, he is at his best, but here unfortunately at his briefest. Part iii, dealing with the teacher's application of psychological discoveries, fills only one-ninth of the volume.

Its classical forms all notoriously outworn and unserviceable, Sensationalism is made over by Prof. Edward Bradford Titchener. Neither Locke nor Hume nor Mill would recognize more than its name in the Cornell scientist's "Lectures on the Experimental Psychology of the Thought Processes" (Macmillan). The last word of the title gives the leading clew to the lines along which the old psychological doctrine of England has been recast; it is not what men think, but rather what goes on when they think that concerns the experimentalist. In confessing himself guilty of a sensationalistic bias, Professor Titchener enters the mitigating qualification that this bias means "simply that psychology prefers to work with as few tools as possible, and that . . . sensation and affection together seem to give it all it requires for the work of analysis." Sensationalism, therefore, is for him "an heuristic principle and not a creed"; and the present volume attempts to justify this limited faith by its works, as these have, during the past nine years, been rapidly accomplished under the leadership of Marbe in Germany and Binet in France. Viewed merely as a digest of contemporary psychological investigations and theories about the nature of thinking, Professor Titchener's book is one no student of the subject can leave unread. It is, however, much more than a summary; it is a vigorous defence of the laboratory method as the most profitable attack upon the secret ways of our most complicated and fleeting mental processes. In sharpening the issues between his own hypothesis and that of "imageless thinking," Professor Titchener is at his best, because at the crisis. His notes alone on this and its implicated problems constitute almost a complete bibliography of the field. His running fire at his opponents lights up the whole scene, but does not scorch.

In view of their inevitably limited range and rather predetermined style, text-books on logic multiply amazingly. One might reasonably suppose that, long ere this, the ideal elementary treatise had been penned and generally recognized; yet, among teachers, the sighing for something better in the way of an introduction to the reasoning art is perennial. The trouble is that the logician is by profession addicted to niceties; he wants his students to have a book as neat and as well hinged as his own finished thoughts; but the students, who have yet to acquire the logical virtues, learn unwillingly and little from such a work. Grace, pretty illustrations, amiability, and comments on the doings of the hour are called for by the pampered learner. Recognizing this dilemma, several recent writers have chosen the student's horn of it; of their books no other seems quite equal to the latest of the group, which Prof. Boyd Henry Bode has just written. "An Outline of Logic" (Holt) conveys all the elements of the science down an agreeable stream of talk about the reason and unreason of our contemporaries. Professor Bode is as informal as an expounder of logical formalities dares be without losing caste; but he does not expound loosely. He does not reprint the good old modes of the schoolmen. He does not even quote Mill by the page—an achievement much to be respected. Nearly half the volume consists of clippings from newspapers and magazines of recent date, with the author's appended analysis and criticism of their reasoning. The exercises at the back include the old but ever useful common properties of logic interspersed among paragraphs from the Interstate Commerce Commission and its critics, from Mrs. Eddy, from the stand-patters, from biology, and from disciples of table-rappers.

ENGLISH.

William J. Long's much-heralded "English Literature" (Ginn) is a thoroughly animated and readable text-book. Its shortcomings are mainly unavoidable in any brief history which possesses the virtue of a definite, personal point of view. Excluding what he cannot vitalize, Mr. Long leaves the fifteenth century blank; a sound moralist, he passes the Restoration period with bated and uncommunicative breath; romantic, he treats the whole school of Dryden and Pope with a harshness now a little archaic. He arranges his material, however, and in general characterizes literary movements and individual writers with clearness and distinction. Never dull, and seldom trite, he speaks of a great variety of men and books with that desirable gusto which provokes the reader's appetite. To these spiritual values must be added frequent tabular views of literature and history, select but ample bibliographies for each period, a jolly lithograph of the Canterbury Pilgrims, with many other stimulating illustrations, Prof. W. L. Phelps's literary map of England, and an index. It would be difficult to name another book of similar intention and compass which more happily unites method and solidity with humanity and grace.

Prof. W. E. Simonds, already author of a useful "Student's History of English Literature," now presents as a companion volume "A Student's History of American Literature" (Houghton Mifflin). Largely derivative, and somewhat academic in treatment, it has the merit of presenting some of the "best that is known and thought" about our colonial writers and our perpetual "classics"—Irving, Cooper, Bryant, and the rest. In the longer articles, Professor Simonds attempts too much detail for the best effect. Falling a little into the chronological style of "Who's Who," he sacrifices contours, lights, and shadows to mere inclusiveness. His last chapter, dealing with the living and the recently dead, was doubtless intended to add a note of freshness and timeliness; but it had been much better omitted. Its sins of inclusion and exclusion are inexplicable, and, after all, its twenty-five pages are only an unedifying mass of names, titles, and dates. The historian of so brief a literature as the American must either orient himself and steer boldly and wisely among the living, or else wait another generation for Old Mortality.

Among the new English texts we note the apearance of Walter C. Bronson's "English Poems" of the Elizabethan and the Puritan period (University of Chicago Press). This full and admirable selection is the second in his proposed series of four volumes. Shakespeare is represented by "Hamlet" and "The Tempest" in the New Hudson edition (Ginn); by "Henry V" and "A Midsummer Night's Dream" in the "Lakeside Classics" (Scott, Foresman), and by "Richard II," "Julius Cæsar" and "Macbeth" in a single volume published by the Clarendon Press. Debaters will be interested to find in P. M. Pearson's "Intercollegiate Debates" (Hinds, Noble, and Eldridge) a collection of briefs and reports of all the important contests of the past year. It is a great pleasure to announce that F. C. Prescott's "Selections from Poe" (Holt) is not another edition of the Gold Bug, etc., but a well-chosen and well-edited volume of Poe's most important critical writings.

There is something almost communal in the composition of rhetorical text-books—*das Volk dichtet*. The rhetorical "movement" this spring is characterized by two auspicious tendencies: the omission of the word "rhetoric" from the titles, and the emphasis upon the use of models. Both signs indicate an attempt to win the confidence of the student, and to get closer to the actual business of writing. Thus Prof. Charles Sears Baldwin's substantial tome is called simply "Writing and Speaking" (Longmans), a title which puts the whole matter on an eminently practical base. Perhaps the most salient feature of his treatment is his reduction of all rhetorical

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virtues to Clearness and Interest. The most valuable feature is his attention to the possibilities of mutual helpfulness existing between oral and written composition. "A College Course in Writing from Models," by F. C. Berkeley of the University of Wisconsin (Holt), is another collection of "specimens," such as the last two or three years have been fruitful in. Mr. Berkeley's development of the type consists in a not very strenuous or brilliant set of exercises adapted to the models. The step, however, is in the right direction. Professor Canby and four colleagues of the Sheffield Scientific School have put out an "English Composition in Theory and Practice" (Macmillan), which endeavors to combine richness in specimens with fulness in precept. The "hit" of the book should be the structure of a brief, represented diagrammatically in the form of a railway trestle for the better comprehension of engineers. On the whole, the best book of the season is a fully revised edition of Scott and Denney's "Paragraph-Writing" (Allyn & Bacon) —a really original work, an exception among scores which have no reason for being—beyond the impulse, innate in every teacher of composition, to increase and multiply.

One young writer in a hundred will find a kind of gospel inspiration in Joseph Russell Taylor's "Composition in Narration" (Holt). In all probability that exceptional one will be as well worth saving as the ninety-nine others who take the dusty highway to salvation. The author of this unique and personal little treatise believes that the teacher of composition should himself be a writer. He should attempt to induct his pupils not into the rules, but into the creative and artistic spirit. The power to write as artists write, he believes, arises not from obedience to the rhetorical decalogue, but from a trained vision, imagination, and experience. The method and intimacy of his counsels the following passage will illustrate:

> Years ago, in old vacation swimming days, and in a prosy little Western river, I used to swim across to the diving log with a notebook and pencil in my teeth; these instruments were deposited on the log; and up from every dive I came to scribble in the notebook another wet-fingered phrase or two, of the underwater world, of how the sun looked like a lamp in a dome, of how my swimming comrades were turned golden, green, beautiful! for I was writing a poem on Hylas and the nymphs. So in another year I was writing upon a theme whose symbol and image was the wind blowing, and, of course, a girl in the wind; I watched five seasons through, watched and caught at and tried to express those beautiful living images. I remember an undated midwinter in Chicago—or was it New York?—when at the corners of those deep city cañons every woman became, this instant and that, statuary beautiful as the winged Victory. . . . If I may paraphrase Stevenson, that, like it or not, is the way to learn to tell the truth; whether I have profited or not, that is the way. Live it out for yourself, and all these things shall be added unto you, the rules and the rules, as you grow in wise experience of your own life.

GREEK AND LATIN.

The student of Greek, no less than the student of archæology, has long needed a book that would give in English a brief and more or less popular survey of the progress made so far in the study of all branches of Greek archæology and art. That progress, owing mainly to excavations carried out in the past generation, has been immense, but the results have not been easily accessible to the English reader. The "Handbook of Greek Archæology," by Prof. H. N. Fowler and J. R. Wheeler (American Book Co.), is the latest addition to the college series edited by Professor Smyth, and is an excellent introduction to the whole field. Architecture, sculpture, terra-cottas, metal work, coins, gems, vases, and painting are all treated, architecture with especial minuteness in the chapter contributed by Gorham Stevens. In a volume of only five hundred pages, which is moreover copiously illustrated, one hesitates to complain of omissions. But surely the chapter on Pre-Hellenic Greece, which tells us so much about Mycenæ and Cnossus, might have included some account of Hissarlik, a word which does not occur in the index. Yet, for most readers, that great site is of all others the most interesting. Cnossus has indeed given us far more remains, but Cnossus is not the background of the masterpiece of epic literature, and will never permanently fix the attention of the whole world, like Troy. In the chronological sketch of Crete the dates given are those adopted by Eduard Meyer, which are later than those proposed by Dr. Evans. There is a useful bibliography, and the illustrations are admirably reproduced. The book will no doubt take its place, for some time to come, as the standard short English handbook on this great subject.

An interesting attempt to convince school boys of the living force of the Greek language, and to make its acquisition what it ought to be, an exercise in ingenuity and an intellectual game, at least in the early stages, is being made by Dr. Rouse, the headmaster of the Perse School, at Cambridge, Eng. In his "Lucian's Dialogues, Prepared for Schools" (Frowde), he offers, first, a small volume containing most of Lucian's dialogues, with the necessary omissions, the syntax modified to accord with the normal Attic. As Lucian was the most skilful of all the Atticists, the modifications are mainly in the use of ἄν and a few particles. To be used with this he has arranged a little volume of notes to explain all the important words and allusions. The new departure consists in the fact that these notes are written in Greek. At first sight they repel like the Greek scholia, but unlike scholia they are composed in Greek so simple that they need not daunt a student in his first year of Greek. They are intended to fix the grammar by use, to enlarge the vocabulary, and to do away with the use of a dictionary, which Dr. Rouse calls a "time-wasting device." The essential thing is that the whole lesson is conducted in Greek, and that translation into English is reserved for home work, and is written. Dr. Rouse gives a full description of the method which he has for some time followed with success. For most American schools it would probably demand more time than is usually given to the subject, but where time can be spared there is no doubt that here is an excellent way of securing the interest of the students, and there can be no better author than Lucian for the experiment. The "Anabasis," which hardly ever attracts the young, could then be discarded altogether, and a boy who is to have only one year of Greek would at least have pleasant and vivid memories of the experience.

Prof. Carl Darling Buck's "Introduction to the Study of the Greek Dialects" (Ginn) supplies, for the first time, in a single volume (of 300 pages), the needs of those who desire to appreciate the wide range of speech in the Greek world. Even those who are deeply read in the Greek classics will have met few of these dialects in literature, and there is no reason why their acquaintance should be reserved for special students of inscriptions or for those who write critical studies of dialect for the doctor's dissertation. An admirable general grammar of the dialects is followed by a selection of inscriptions with brief footnotes. The Glossary supplements Liddell and Scott, now of course hopelessly out of date in this as in several other fields. There are useful charts and a dialect map.

Prof. Charles E. Bennett's "First Year Latin" (Allyn & Bacon) is intended to prepare the pupil for the intelligent study of Cæsar, and the vocabulary is chosen from the commonest words used in the "Gallic War." The arrangement of the material falls into line with the ordinary Latin grammar, so that there need be no readjustment of the pupil's mind in the second year of grammar work. The lessons are followed by Book ii of the "Gallic War," with footnotes and a map. Professor Bennett lays stress on the necessity of learning the declensions and conjugations thoroughly at the outset, and on the advantage of oral drill over written work on the forms.

MODERN LANGUAGES.

Racine's "Phèdre," edited by Irving Babbitt (Heath), is a model of compact and skilful work, the introduction and the notes alike bearing on the text in an illuminating way. The introduction attains real distinction. It is an essay, not merely by courtesy, in which are expounded (1) Racine's life; (2) his art; (3) the special literary problems presented by "Phèdre." Most suggestive of all is Part ii. Here the editor explains the relation between classic and neo-classic art, and traces the over-refinement of manner manifest in French tragedy back through the artificial pastoral romances ultimately to the conscious poses of Petrarch. Part iii furnishes a comparison of "Phèdre" with its chief sources, the "Hippolytus" of Euripides and the "Phædra" of Seneca. This part, valuable as it is, could easily have been improved if Professor Babbitt had inserted the main lines of all three plots; in that case Racine's relations, in the large, to his predecessors would have become more apparent. Such matters can, it is true, be inferred from the well-chosen extracts, given in the original Greek and Latin, together with translations, which form a part of the notes.

"Les Maîtres de la critique littéraire au XIXe siècle," by W. W. Comfort (Heath), is a collection of twelve French critical essays, so chosen as to suggest the trend of French criticism throughout the nineteenth century. Such a volume, even though we admit that the selection is not always quite skilful, is bound to be so useful that one must regret the lack of a general historical introduction. This could have been made unusually precise by means of illustrative

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references to the French text. The book contains a number of misprints.

The new series, known as "Crowell's Shorter French Texts" (Thomas Y. Crowell) now includes twenty-four volumes. Provided with a brief introduction in French and with exercises requiring comments on the text in French, each volume aims to surround the student with a strictly foreign atmosphere; the illusion is carried still further by the un-English sounding names of most of the editors. It must be said, however, that the series throughout presents the appearance of slightness: the texts are intentionally very short; so are the notes (three of Molière's plays, which, by the way, seem out of place in any series for very young readers, receive but a page apiece), and also the vocabularies, which are awkwardly arranged, page by page. In general, the selections are drawn from obscure works.

Of French grammars and compositions there is the usual variety. Chardenal's "Complete French Course" (Allyn & Bacon), which now appears in a new, revised edition, shows a gain from having been expunged of its ambiguous sentences; it will continue to be a book of great practical value for secondary schools. Scarcely less important is the "French Composition," by William Koren (Holt), which is designed primarily for colleges. The book appears to be superior to the previous work by Vreeland and Koren, in that from the very start composition is based upon passages of French text. Part ii, especially, comprising large excerpts from "Le Voyage de Monsieur Perrichon," with the accompanying composition, offers good practice in variety of expression.

C. F. Martin's elaborate treatise on "The French Verb" (American Book Company) is hardly likely to gain a foothold in many schools or colleges. Though the importance of the verb in French is not to be denied, the advantage of devoting the 230 pages of Part i to scarcely more than mere conjugation is not apparent. The exercises and observations in the rest of the book also seem a bit fussy and futile.

Much learning of the useful sort is manifest in "Common Difficulties in Reading French," by C. C. Clarke, jr. (William R. Jenkins Co.). It is a book to which one may refer with great convenience, owing to the alphabetical arrangement of the matter, for the more frequent idioms of the language. In grammars these are likely to be treated more inaccessibly.

In the series of Spanish Readings, under the direction of Prof. J. D. M. Ford (Holt), appear "La Mariposa blanca" of Selgas, edited by H. A. Kenyon, and "Tres Comedias modernas," edited by F. W. Morrison. To students of Spanish the latter of the two books will doubtless be the more welcome, as the plays which it contains are in every way charming; by comparison, "La Mariposa blanca" seems melodramatic.

Professor Cusachs of the Naval Academy, with his edition of Valera's "Pepita Jiménez" (American Book Company), reintroduces us to an old acquaintance, this story having been already edited for the Heath Series in 1908 by G. L. Lincoln of Harvard. The pages of pseudomysticism of the first part, wisely excised in the previous edition as being too subtle for mere beginners in the language, are here found in full. The notes add nothing new, and throughout are slight.

A volume of first German readings, by P. S. Allen, bears the inviting title "Herein" (Holt). Design and method are worthy of emphatic approval. The editor has skilfully attained simplicity without silliness and without sacrifice of idiomatic flavor, even at the beginning. A genuine German atmosphere pervades the book, tempered but not impaired by American common sense.

A new edition of Schiller's "Jungfrau von Orleans," by P. S. Allen and S. T. Byington (Ginn), is chiefly distinguished from its numerous predecessors by a more scrupulous Vocabulary, and by more attention, in the interpretation of the play, to sources and literary analogues. Summaries of the successive scenes are transmitted from Bellermann "without subterfuge—and without water." This explanation is not a little surprising. Why dilute Bellermann? The application of a sharper reagent than water would improve his analyses, excellent as in many respects they are. This edition aims consistently at sympathetic appreciation. Some stimulation to a critical attitude would surely make the study of this drama more instructive. One might, for instance, raise the question whether there is any difference between epic and dramatic poetry in respect to a catalogue of the ships; and one might safely go farther than to characterize Montgomery as "somewhat of coward, or at least capable of deep discouragement in war."

Among many new editions of favorite prose narratives, F. W. J. Heuser's "Höher als die Kirche" (Charles E. Merrill Co.) is an example of minute attention to details. To secure a Vocabulary perfectly adapted to his text, Mr. Heuser did not disdain translating the whole story into as good English as he could command. His annotations seem unnecessarily ample. A special and commendable feature of his book is a series of original exercises based upon a systematic presentation of principles of syntax as they are found illustrated in the first chapter. The book is well fitted for a combination of intensive with extensive methods of instruction.

"Exercises in German Syntax and Composition," by Marian P. Whitney and Lilian L. Stroebe (Holt), strives to develop in advanced students the capacity for treating literary subjects in German. Most books of exercises are concerned primarily with colloquial idiom. This one illustrates fundamental syntactic matters by a series of well-chosen paragraphs about poets or poetic works, each accompanied by a paraphrase for translation into German. A second part consists of an equally excellent series of short paragraphs, chiefly by American writers, on German subjects. Part third contains a number of literary topics for free thematic composition. Students who can profitably use this book must certainly be advanced. The translation of idiomatic English into idiomatic German is not easy; and not all students will find all the aid they may need in the Vocabulary to these exercises. All students will, however, be impressed by the dignity of the goal here set before their eyes; and whoever under criticism conscientiously works through these exercises cannot fail to acquire considerable power of expression in literary style.

Calvin Thomas's "Anthology of German Literature" (Heath) ranges from the "Hildebrandslied" to the youthful works of Schiller. Monuments antedating the Reformation appear in modernized German versions, in part by the editor. The volume is handy, and the selections are representative, and are elucidated, so far as appears to be necessary, by judicious notes.

HISTORY.

Teachers of history in secondary schools will find much food for thought, and, if they will, a deal of chastening and inspiration, in M. W. Keatinge's "Studies in the Teaching of History" (Macmillan). Unlike most American school men who have written so prolifically of late on the best method of teaching history to boys and girls, Mr. Keatinge faces squarely the inherent difficulties involved in teaching history in an elementary way at all: namely, the vastness and infinite variety of content, the danger of memorizing too much or too little, the problem of differentiating the home work of the pupil from the classroom work of the master, the lack of logical precision in either methods or results, and the practical difficulties of poor textbooks, ill-prepared teachers, the absence of proper school libraries and other facilities, and the abuse of examinations. By way of showing what can be done, however, even under these untoward conditions, Mr. Keatinge fills the larger part of his book with practical exercises, carefully worked out in detail, illustrating the use of sources and texts, the training of memory and judgment, and the technique of note-taking. We know of no book that does this sort of thing so thoroughly, or which opens to the ambitious teacher so large a possibility of making the study of history interesting. Yet to most teachers in this country these exercises, prepared for the use of English schoolboys of rather less than the average American high-school age, will seem, we frankly fear, quite impossible, which is another way of saying that history, in spite of all the zealous discussion of its pedagogical conditions, is still one of the most carelessly and indifferently taught subjects, and one of the least intellectual value in the secondary-school curriculum.

A revised edition of D. H. Montgomery's "Leading Facts of American History" (Ginn), with the narrative brought down to the beginning of President Taft's Administration, has just appeared. While the well-known characteristics of the book, including its somewhat fervid patriotism, have not been changed, a testing of the text at various points shows that the author has kept well abreast of recent literature in his field, and that the standard of accuracy is very high; while the references for reading have been thoroughly overhauled, and now include many of the best recent books. There is the usual apparatus of outlines, questions, and reference tables, a profusion of illustrations and maps, and a good index.

"A Syllabus of European History," by Profs. Herbert D. Foster and Sidney B. Fay of Dartmouth College (published by the college), has passed to a third edition. As compared with the first edition, the outline, covering the period from 375 to 1870, shows material improvement in the division and arrangement of topics and the more precise indication of work to be done by the student; while the typographical arrangement is clearer and more usable. The bibliogra-

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phy is notable for its predominating reference to really serious books, instead of to a small list of handbooks and compends, and for its rigid exclusion of assignments of impossible length. Although the syllabus is not, of course, intended as a substitute for either text book, lectures, or notes, it should prove serviceable in any thorough college course in the general history of Western Europe.

A novel aid to the study of international law is "International Incidents for Discussion in Conversation Classes," by Prof. L. Oppenheim of the University of Cambridge (Cambridge: The University Press). Under twenty-five sections, but without particular attempt at topical classification, are presented one hundred typical international incidents, most of them of actual occurrence, but some hypothetical, intended to illustrate the leading principles of international law in their everyday application. In the hands of a skilful teacher, and with the aid of suitable text and case books, the collection ought to prove both useful and stimulating, though for American use the selection might well be supplemented by further incidents drawn from American experience. A feature of importance is the printing of the topics on the right-hand pages only, and on a writing paper. G. P. Putnam's Sons are the American publishers.

SCIENCE.

The "Text Book of Physics" (Blakiston & Co.), edited by Prof. A. W. Duff of Worcester, and written by him in collaboration with six other physicists, has proved its popularity by reaching a second edition in a year. The book has been carefully revised, and has, perhaps, been made a little more homogeneous. By dividing the text into coarse and fine print, provision has been made for a more elementary course than the complete book requires. On the whole, the subject is treated in a fairly adequate manner, surprisingly so when we consider the difficulty of such a plan of editorship. But the different sections do still show a decided variety in presentation, which detracts from the logical development of the science. For example, some of the collaborators treat their sections from the historical standpoint, while others ignore it. In mechanics and heat the large type portion of the text is frequently more advanced and difficult than the presumably less elementary part given in the small type in the subjects of light and electricity. In fact, the treatment of heat, and especially thermodynamics, is too advanced for the rest of the book, and the obscurities are increased by a rather cumbrous style. The discussion of sound seems inadequate for so extensive a book, and might be expanded to advantage. The authors have gone back to the method of separating mathematical equations from the body of the text, and clearness of exposition has been aided by this plan. The book is not a piece of hack-work, and shows careful search for new material and verification of old. The diagrams are poor, in many cases so small and badly drawn and printed as to be unintelligible. We note the following errors: Impigning for impinging (p. 340); diagrammatic for diamagnetic (505); the nomenclature for electrolysis should be credited to Whewell instead of to Faraday; the discovery of the effect of the phase on the appreciation of the direction of sounds has been credited by Lord Rayleigh to the earlier work of More and Fry.

In "Electricity," a text-book designed in particular for engineering students, by H. M. Hobart (Van Nostrand), the author has attempted to discard the crystallized pedagogical methods of the schools. To this end he has eliminated such outworn topics as friction machines, frog-legs, sealing-wax, electrophorous, the aurora borealis, which are usually, in his opinion, found dished up even in the most progressive of the recent text-books. His aim is to be more matter-of-fact. He begins his book with the statement that "electricity is a form of energy"; now, this may be a novel definition of electricity, but it is not matter-of-fact. We may not know what electricity is, but we do know it is not energy. And this typifies the work of writers who discard the cautious and conservative founding of engineering problems on the study of physics; where they are novel they are likely to be in error or superficial. The remainder of the text shows no special originality; most of the problems are worked out by the usual methods. The diagrams, tables, and problems form a useful set for the student.

Prof. J. A. Culler of Miami University has issued the first part, mechanics and heat, of a "Text-Book of General Physics" (Lippincott). This treatise is evidently designed for the college-rather than for the university student, as it is better adapted to prepare the student for class recitations than for lectures. The subjects are treated clearly and concisely, and will give a good general knowledge of natural laws and phenomena. The diagrams and text are for the most part adequate. Some of them, however, are slovenly; for example, figs. 147 and 177; and fig. 151 is wrong. The definitions and laws of mechanics are clear enough, but Newton's fundamental laws of motion certainly deserve a more careful announcement than the off-hand statement: "These laws were written in Latin, and their interpretation is about as follows." The interpretation that follows is quite inadequate and partly wrong. The discussion of the luminiferous ether could easily be improved; in addition to its vagueness, it would be strengthened by a consideration of the more modern ideas. On the whole, however, the book has been carefully planned, and is a safe text for the student.

The text and hand-book on "Electric Power Conductors," by William A. Del Mar (Van Nostrand), is useful for those desiring knowledge on electric conductors, their materials, insulation, installation, and all work of this character. It is packed with data and formulæ, carefully chosen and skilfully presented. Diagrams and cuts are accurately drawn and printed, and great care has been taken to make the information readily accessible. Typographical errors are few: Kirchhoff's name, on page 38, should be correctly spelled, and the meaning of the symbol Z has been omitted on page 40.

That physical chemistry is coming to be a science of the laboratory as well as of the lecture room is shown by the appearance of new guides to its practical operations. One of the best of these is the "Physical Chemistry Theory and Practice" (Blakiston), by Prof. Arthur W. Ewell of Worcester Polytechnic. It lives up to its name in admirable manner, for each section contains a succinct development of the mathematical formulæ involved, the directions for an experiment, and a few problems and suggestive questions. Dr. Ewell takes pains to state just what apparatus is best and where it may be purchased, and his instructions are so carefully worded that we hardly need the assurance given in the preface that "the exercises described have been performed by the author's laboratory class for several years." The book is intended especially for the training of students in their third or fourth year of collegiate work, but it will also be handy for reference on methods to men engaged in researches involving the measurement of light, conductivity, vapor densities, reaction velocities, heat of combustion, dissociation, solubility, and the like.

Another work of very similar scope and purpose is Roth's "Exercises in Physical Chemistry" (Van Nostrand), translated by A. T. Cameron. This is about half the length of Professor Ewell's book and not quite so closely adapted to American conditions; otherwise it does not suffer by comparison, and is well worth translating. It is based upon the *Kleine Practikum* of physical chemistry which the author conducted for Nernst in Berlin before being called to Greifswald. The chapters on optical constants, thermo-chemistry, and molecular weight determinations are particularly thorough, and the volume closes, like the preceding, with a brief section on the measurement of radio-activity.

The "Manual of Physical Geography," by Dr. F. V. Emerson (Macmillan) is a laboratory guide. The subject is presented in the form of exercises and experiments, by means of which the student will gradually build up accurate physiographic conceptions. Starting with the form of the earth, the student is conducted through the topics of meteorology, earth sculpture, lakes, oceans, shore lines, and soils. Seventeen typical areas are then reviewed. The author is instructor in geology in the University of Missouri, and naturally treats his subject from the evolutionary standpoint.

After many years' experience in the teaching of geography in schools and normal colleges, W. J. Sutherland has prepared a work, "The Teaching of Geography" (Scott, Foresman & Co.), which is a strong appeal for improved instruction in this important subject. In carrying out his plan, he has passed in review the relations of geography to other sciences, and to the many activities of human life. Besides these points the reader receives much valuable advice in the matter of presentation, equipment, and works of reference.

The "Advanced Physiology and Hygiene" of H. W. Conn and R. A. Budington (Silver, Burdett) is the third in Conn's graded series of physiologies, and is apparently intended for use in high schools. The authors have endeavored to reduce the load of anatomical details commonly carried by such books, and in this are measurably successful. Hygiene is treated briefly and rather didactically, but the general directions for the preservation of health are good and might be made impressive. In purely physiological matter the book is very uneven. Many of the facts are so well presented that the defects are the more regrettable; the most inexcusable is perhaps the statement that the cranial

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nerves are ten in number. The directions for demonstrations are hardly adequate except for a skilled teacher well able to make extensive modifications.

Literature.

MALTA.

A History of Malta, During the Period of the French and British Occupations, 1798-1815. By William Hardman. Edited with Introduction and Notes by J. Holland Rose. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. $6.50 net.

Mr. Hardman, who for fifty years made Malta his second home, brought together from the archives of Malta, Naples, Paris, and London a valuable collection of documents referring to events in the history of the island from 1792 to 1815. He wished to gather material which would enable students of history to form a correct appreciation of Great Britain's actions toward Malta during these years. He had woven the documents together with a good connecting narrative, but death overtook him before the manuscript was quite ready for the press. His executors gave his material into the hands of perhaps the ablest English interpreter of Napoleonic statesmanship, J. H. Rose. This was fortunate. For Mr. Rose has added many explanatory notes and written an admirable introduction, and thus made clearer some of the larger questions of the period.

If this volume were merely the history of a little island of a hundred square miles, with a population of only a hundred thousand souls, during a score of ordinary years, we should not deem it worth an extended review. But it so happened that Malta was a most important pawn in the greatest game of war the world has ever seen. Like Copenhagen, Gibraltar, Egypt, and Panama, it came to be regarded as one of those vantage-points of world-empire importance, whose fate it is to be bandied about in strifes in which they have no prime concern. A whole year before the Egyptian Expedition actually set sail, the keen eye of Bonaparte had seen and considered the strategic importance of Malta. With his usual foresight he sent a secret agent, named Poussielgue, to establish relations with disaffected persons there, and to report on possible means of seizing the fortress of Valetta. Poussielgue's interesting report, here reproduced, like many of the other documents in the original French, reached Paris early in 1798, and was considered by Bonaparte and the Directors a few days before they decided to abandon the expedition against England in favor of one against Egypt. Bonaparte's intention to seize Malta on the way to Egypt must have been confirmed by Poussielgue's report and his statement that "celui qui possède Malte est le maître absolu du commerce de la Méditerranée. C'est un autre Gibraltar." The truth of this has been made evident enough by the events of the nineteenth century, but the English had not appreciated it until the French made it clear. Even Nelson at first thought "the possession of Malta by England would be a useless and enormous expense" (April 6, 1799); but after maturer consideration he later correctly pronounced Malta to be "a most important outwork to India" (June 28, 1803). So the fate of Malta depended, not on the Maltese, not on the Knights of St. John, but on the mighty forces that were set in motion by the will of Bonaparte, and were ultimately thwarted by England's sea power.

Yet the history of the Order of Knights and of the Maltese population is also not without an interest of its own. The island had been given to the Order by Charles V in 1530, to protect Europe against the Mohammedan advance. A statement of the revenues of the Order just before the French Revolution, drawn up by Bosredon Ransijat, the treasurer, shows tolerably well the cosmopolitan character of the Order and the relative influence in it enjoyed by each of the European countries. In 1788 France contributed 1,392,974 livres, Spain 651,492, Italy 564,802, Portugal 220,503, Germany 103,396, and Poland 15,880. From these sums, together with a small revenue extracted from Malta itself, the Knights had lived in comfort. But their finances became hopeless after 1792, when all their possessions in France were confiscated, and the outbreak of European wars entailed further losses. Incredible as it may seem, their income shrunk from £136,417 in 1788 to £34,663 in 1798. For this reason alone the collapse of the Order was merely a question of time. The Knights were further weakened by their own degeneracy; when the Mohammedans were no longer a menace, their *raison d'être* was gone. Yet they continued to exist as an arrogant oppressive aristocracy, who stirred discontent and hatred in the hearts of the Maltese people. The Maltese were never allowed to become Knights. They could not walk on certain promenades; they could never sit in the first dozen rows at the theatre, even if the seats were vacant. They had no share in the government. At the same time every Knight insisted on having some Maltese wife or daughter as his mistress; husbands and fathers dared not object. Coleridge the poet, who was private secretary to the first English Governor of Malta, summed up the state of affairs by saying that "the Knights were little better than a perpetual influenza, relaxing and diseasing the hearts of all the families within their sphere of influence."

On June 12, 1798, when the Egyptian Expedition anchored off Malta, the Knights were compelled to surrender in quick order. Mr. Hardman shows that this was not due altogether to the pusillanimous behavior of the grand master and the cowardice of the Knights. It was due in good part to traitors within the Order with whom Bonaparte had been in communication, and also to the fact that the Maltese population hailed the French as liberators. The islanders thought they would prefer the rule of the French to that of the Knights. They were soon disillusioned. They found themselves pestered by a host of fussy officials who were determined to force upon them the blessings of the French Revolution. They were ordered to wear tri-color cockades. They were heavily taxed and their churches were plundered to help pay the costs of the Egyptian Expedition. Their joy in June turned to anger in August, as they began to realize that their last state was worse than their first. The Arabic strain in their blood and their remoteness from the main current of European thought made them subject to superstition and fanaticism. It needed only a spark to set them aflame. They were encouraged by the news of the total defeat of the French fleet by Nelson at Aboukir. On September 2 the confiscation and sale of some monastic property led to a riot, and the riot grew into a revolt. Just eighty-two days after their arrival these same French were murdered in the open country or driven into the fortress at Valetta. Here, for two years, they sustained a gallant siege under Vaubois, whose detailed diary is published in an appendix. The Maltese shut the French in on the land side, and the English blockaded the port. Within the fortress rats were soon worth 40 sous apiece. On September 5, 1800, the French surrendered the fortress and the island into the hands of the English, who have retained it ever since.

At the peace of Amiens England promised to restore Malta to the Order of St. John within three months under certain conditions, one of which was that Russia should agree to the terms of the peace. But before this the exiled Knights had sought refuge in Russia and flattered the fancy of the crazy Paul I by making him grand master. If he had not "died of apoplexy," to use a Russian euphemism, it is altogether probable that the English would have handed over Malta to Russia after the peace of Amiens. The Maltese were in despair at the prospect of the restoration of the Order, and sent deputations to England to prevent such a disaster. But the English could do nothing for them except insert in the treaty a clause which made it possible in the future for Maltese to become Knights and have a share in the government of the Order. Russia steadily refused to accept this clause, as well as other parts of the

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treaty. The three months passed by, and it became clear to the English that Bonaparte did not intend to respect the treaty; so the English did not keep their part of the agreement to restore Malta to the Knights. Malta thus became one of the chief occasions for the renewal of the great war. Mr. Hardman's documents allow the student to follow and understand all the intricacies of these negotiations of which Malta was the centre.

Maltese histories in the past and Maltese politicians to-day are inclined to assert that the Maltese were the principals and the English only auxiliaries in the expulsion of the French, and to complain that the English deprived them of their right of self-government. Mr. Hardman shows conclusively the absurdity of both of these points. Except for Nelson's victory at Aboukir and his blockade of Valetta, the French would have received provisions which would have enabled them to hold out any length of time against the handful of Maltese on the land-side. Nor did the English deprive the Maltese of self-government, since the Maltese had never enjoyed it. The *Consiglio Popolare* was never in any sense a representative or a legislative assembly. Statistical tables in an appendix leave no doubt as to the material prosperity of Malta under British rule.

CURRENT FICTION.

The Thief of Virtue. By Eden Phillpotts. New York: John Lane Co.

In "The Haven," Mr. Phillpotts departed, though by a hair's-breadth, from his familiar field, of the Devon moor-country. His fisher-people were not very different humanly from his people of the tors; but something of atmosphere was lacking; one missed the pictorial quality which gives a characteristic charm to the moor tales. "The Thief of Virtue" is upon much the same plane as "The Three Brothers"—built upon a tragic motive, and yet less sombre than certain of the earlier stories—for example, "The Whirlwind." Retribution is the familiar theme, but it is a retribution altogether clear from the punishment of man by man. Philip Ouldsbroom is a sort of rustic Lear, a big nature and a little brain, who comes to ruin through excess of the qualities which make him admirable and lovable. In the full of his youthful pride and strength, he steals away the promised wife of a poorer and less assertive man. She herself is by no means a weak woman, and she loves the weaker man; but there are ruthless elements in her composition. She covets what Philip can give her, and admires the force of his character. He really loves her with all his strength, but marriage means children first of all to both of them. He is one of the rare men in whom paternity is a veritable passion. But the years pass, and they have no children. Then comes the turn of the injured lover. His vengeance upon Philip takes the form of a son whom Philip brings up as his own. The supreme irony of the subsequent action lies in the fact that never to the very last does Philip suspect that his wife has been unfaithful to him, or that Martin is not his son. Retribution takes the subtler form of the development in the son of his real father's narrow and ungenerous nature, and in the disappointment of all the supposed father's hopes. Philip Ouldsbroom becomes a drunkard, but dies of a broken heart. Martin, ignorant of his real parentage (since nobody but his real parents have ever known the fact), grows up the perfect opposite of the man whose name he bears. As always with Mr. Phillpotts, the mood of the tale is stern, without bitterness. A kindlier light shines upon his Devon than upon Mr. Hardy's Wessex.

The Green Mouse. By Robert W. Chambers. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

We realize that the theme of the maiden in distress, with the opportune arrival of the knight-errant, is a perfectly legitimate one for the story-teller to choose. It may date back to the palæozoic era, but its possibilities are eternal, provided it is treated in the proper fashion. Whatever that fashion may be, it is not the one employed by Mr. Chambers in the present volume. His first episode, which presents this theme in its entirety, is a masterpiece of banality. The stage machinery groans with the piteous ills of old age. Dust lies thick on every page, in spite of the breezes of a rapid-fire style. We almost shrink from outlining it: The tall, clean-cut, young man, once rich, now poor, ever well-bred and fashionable; the beautiful young woman, also well-bred and fashionable, with bluish-violet eyes, and many millions of dollars; her runaway horse in the park; the gallant rescue; the ensuing *entente*—financial, as well as matrimonial. Farther into the details we dare not go. Yet Mr. Chambers is so charmed with his little idyl of the idle, as he cleverly calls it, that he proceeds to repeat it, not once but six times. It seems incredible, but between the cryptic dedicatory poem and the publisher's notices seven unusually beautiful young women fall on seven unusually manly breasts, after listening to seven sets of phrases expressing love and eternal devotion. Seven times we learn that "radiant, yet sweetly shamed, confident yet fearful, she lifted her adorable head from his shoulder." The details vary a little; in one case, instead of a runaway horse we have a runaway elevator, again a runaway cat, and so forth; but the result in each case is identical.

The connection between this series of sentimental episodes is obligingly supplied by the hero of the first. He invents a wireless apparatus for bringing affinities together by means of their particular individual psychic waves. So the love affairs are machine-made in more senses than one. A company is formed to exploit the invention, and the book then describes the numerous instances in which its operations are successful. A green mouse—he was white once, but somebody dyed him—happens along and is made to furnish the title. Having accomplished his task, he is heard of no more. Financial backing for the Green Mouse, Limited, is furnished by the heroine's father, an explosive old gentleman addressed by his daughters as Pa-*pah*. He wears a monocle and from time to time, we are told, he emits a mellow bellow. Comment upon him we do not feel able to make.

The Fir and the Palm. By Olive Briggs. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Fir is a New York surgeon, grave, preoccupied, wonderfully skilful with his professional hands, indifferent to women apart from the operating table. He is a true woman's hero, stern, silent, abrupt, a worshipful person in the eyes of his creatrix. The boys in the clinic, the nurses in the hospital, all adore him:

> "Bi-chloride!"
> They flew.
> "Sterile gauze!"
> "Here, Doctor."
> "Rubber plaster! . . . A probe!"
> They were there by his side. . . .
> "The thermometer. . . . See what it registers."
> Instantly it was placed and recorded.

Not even the thermometer dares delay. No wonder the Palm is unable to resist him. The Palm is a little Italian dancer, daughter of a famous lion-tamer who has finally lost her life in the arena. The daughter plans to take her mother's place among the lions, but the surgeon will not have it. The girl has been virtually committed to his care by the dying mother, and, besides, he loves her madly. How he marries her, how and why she escapes him, how he pursues her for a long time in vain, how he at last finds her and they are reunited, forms the substance of a narrative in which the author herself takes an intense interest.

The Fulfillment. By Alice P. Raphael. New York: Sturgis & Walton Co.

In some ways, this novel seems a little old-fashioned. The New Woman, sacrificing things domestic to a Career and Self-development—how frequent and familiar she was, some fifteen or twenty years ago! The radicals have pretty well thrown her over by this time; for them "the individual withers and the world is more and more." The reader soon finds, however, that the author

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is not so sympathetic with her individualistic heroine as her minute description of Vera's exotic beauty had led him to expect—in fact that she is bent on using the poor girl to point a relentless moral. And here is where the book is really and rather refreshingly old-fashioned: the author actually has a point of view, a definite theory of life and morals. Therefore, apart from the merits of her particular theory and despite the frequent obviousness, sententiousness, and even banality of her reflections, her work stands distinctly, in unity, emphasis, and clear organization, above that of more modern novelists whose æsthetic as well as their moral creed seems to be that everything and everybody is as good as everything and everybody else.

Gwenda. By Mabel Barnes-Grundy. New York: The Baker & Taylor Co.

Reflecting on the innocently primitive character-drawing and the amiably slipshod style of this harmless work, one wonders how it ever got into print. The secret lies, one comes to suspect, in the supposedly realistic, certainly minute, vivid, and unpleasant account of a case of appendicitis, operation included, which as a crisis, and a substitute for the usual first baby, in the heroine's life, constitutes the novel's only claim to originality. Probably the countless numbers of the appendixless will enjoy comparing experiences with Gwenda, and make for the book a profitable audience.

GERMAN NATURALISM.

Die neue Form: Ein Beitrag zum Verständnis des deutschen Naturalismus. Von O. E. Lessing. Dresden: Carl Reissner.

To orthodox believers in old-fashioned literary standards and ideals, the author of this book offers a number of simple formulas (besides much learned but rather irrelevant matter), which will solve all their doubts as to the importance of the new phenomenon known as German naturalism: "Artists and learned art critics rarely understand each other"; "The creative instinct and the conventional æstheticism of the mere observer often conflict within the same individual"; "Lessing follows much too faithfully his infallible Aristotle"; "Goethe and Schiller struggle painfully and not always successfully against the subtle influence (Suggestion) of Winckelmann and Kant"; "If the subject matters nothing and the form is everything [the author is led to the deduction by a remark of Schiller's in the "Briefe über die ästhetische Erziehung"], then the question as to what are legitimate motives is solved. Then the artist has the whole world at his disposal, anything and everything, whether 'beautiful' or 'ugly,' gruesome or attractive, sublime or lovely"; "Then whatever is real is true, in so far as it becomes æsthetically alive; then everything in which the form has conquered the subject is beautiful; then beauty is inherent and not transcendental; then beautiful is synonymous with artistic." To all of which skeptical followers of the old school will be tempted to reply, in the language of the *Fliegende Blätter:* "Nicht Alles was hässlich ist, ist schön—not everything that is ugly is beautiful."

Not thus is daunted Prof. O. E. Lessing. He holds up to our unbounded admiration every line of the writer to whom he devotes the bulk of his book, Herr Arno Holz, the ripest exponent of German naturalism. In him, we have the "new form" in its highest perfection. Take these simple lines, an imperfect, though literal, translation of which we venture to add:

Draussen die Düne.	Out there the dune.
Einsam das Haus, eintönig, ans Fenster, der Regen.	Lonely the house, monotonous, 'gainst the window, the rain.
Hinter mir, tictac, eine Uhr, meine Stirn gegen die Scheibe.	Behind me, tick-tack, a clock, my forehead 'gainst the pane.
Nichts.	Nothing.
Alles vorbei. Grau der Himmel, grau die See, und grau das Herz.	Vanished the whole. Gray the heavens, gray the sea, and gray the heart.

Mr. Lessing's critical comment on this gem is as follows: "Expression, in its greatest simplicity, has here reached the highest degree of vividness, and, wonderful as it may seem, the rhythm no longer halts: it obtrudes neither by roughness nor smoothness; it is as such not noticeable at all. Contents and form are absolutely at one. There are few lyrics in German literature which accomplish so much with such simple means." Still, just as the artless simplicity of Heine's most exquisite songs was the result of incessant filing and polishing, so is the witchery of Arno Holz's rhythm often the crowning triumph of various changes in topography, including punctuation, leads, indenting of lines, and marking of "explanatory stops" (*Sinnpausen*), which make a world of difference to the initiated. Take, for instance, this stanza of four simple words, as first arranged, and as finally given to the world by Herr Arno Holz:

Vergeben?
Ich?
Dir?
Längst!

This form "werges on the poetical" (to speak with the elder Mr. Weller), but

Vergeben? Ich? Dir?
Längst.

is decidedly "more tenderer." As Mr. Lessing explains, "the dual oneness of the I and Thou, disturbed by the guilt of the one, becomes more pronounced by the juxtaposition," etc., etc. And "what power of description, what magic insight, what splendor of coloring live in the Oriental phantasies of the modernist" who could pen lines like the following, descriptive of a Japanese dragon?—

Mit der Nase
stürzt er in den Baikalsee,
sein linker Hinterzeh zerquetscht den Dhawalagiri.
(Nose foremost
he drops into Lake Baikal,
his left hind toe crushes Dhawalaghiri.)

So much for the new form in lyric poetry. Of the dramatist Arno Holz we speak with more hesitation. Mr. Lessing devotes fifty pages to an analysis of "Sonnenfinsternis," a tragedy which, as its subject is unspeakably revolting to our uncultivated taste, we are bound to confess we shall not read, even after being assured that "at last Germany possesses a tragedy which did not spring from Greek, Roman, English, French, or Scandinavian soil, but is entirely German in its essence and form." We prefer to be classed with the public which "has no eyes" and "revels in the hollow rhetoric of a lying classicism" or "staggers once more in the fog of transcendental romanticism." Mr. Lessing would probably refer those who pass over in silence (because of its subject) the "profoundest tragedy of modern times," to the "Œdipus Tyrannus." Indeed, there is a slightly sneering allusion to the "miraculously accidental primal guilt" of the "Œdipus," which evidently means to imply that if the world has so long been able to stomach the unconscious guilt of Sophocles's tragedy, it ought to swallow without a murmur the tangible horror of the German modernist.

It is, indeed, a nauseous mess which the learned elucidator of Arno Holz places before us. Let us ask him, in all candor, whether he thinks it advisable in an American teacher (Mr. Lessing is professor in the University of Illinois) to set up literary standards which are in contravention of what the entire civilized world has cherished for thousands of years? Thirty years ago the great Hellenic scholar, Professor Gildersleeve, spoke in the *Nation*, after a performance of "Œdipus" at Harvard, of "the permanency of the ancient classics as an integral part of our civilization." Would Professor Lessing advocate the production of "Sonnenfinsternis," that "tragedy raised to the highest power" (*Tragödie in der Potenz*) by American college students?

Across Papua: Being an Account of a Voyage Round, and a March Across, the Territory of Papua, with the Royal Commission. By Col. Kenneth Mackay, C.B., M.L.C. With 40 plates from photographs, and a folding map.

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New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. $2.50 net.

This is the entertaining account by Col. Kenneth Mackay, C.B., of a visit to British New Guinea as chairman of the Royal Commission, sent out to report upon the present conditions of the territory and the best means for their improvement. To get the necessary information they sailed round the entire coast-line, visited all the principal settlements, and crossed the island from north to south over the almost impassable Owen Stanley Range. His impressions, scribbled down, to use his own words, after the day's work was done, are of enchantingly beautiful scenery and a land of extraordinary fertility. In a station garden he saw growing twenty-one different fruits and vegetables, and counted fifteen dozen bananas in one bunch, while from the produce of twenty acres nearly fifty persons had been sustained for a year. A prosperous future undoubtedly awaits Papua, from its special adaptation to the cultivation of coffee, copra, and rubber. The greatest interest was awakened by the study of the natives, who consist of "many tribes, often distinct in physical type, language, occupation, customs, dress, weapons, and character." The mountaineers are of fine physique and are generally a moral and dignified people. Cannibalism, however, still seems to survive even among the tribes brought closest into contact with the whites. As an illustration of the intelligence of the children, he quotes a missionary who told him that "he was constantly being critically questioned by his pupils after telling some of the Bible stories. For instance, having given his class an account of how Noah took two of each type of bird, animal, and insect into the ark, and so preserved the various species, a boy next day came to him and asked, 'Did Noah take two of each sort?' 'Yes,' replied Riley. 'Two fowls?' 'Yes.' 'Two pythons?' 'Yes.' 'No fear,' said the boy. 'But why?' 'Why,' laughed the boy, 'because if Noah had put two pythons in the same ark as those fowls, there wouldn't be any fowls now.'"

In regard to the vexed question of colonization Col. Mackay's judgment is that "in this fruitful region there is room enough for white and brown alike to work out and mutually improve each other's destinies, if only the more highly developed race will realize that morality, industry, honesty, firmness, and patience are virtues that to be rightly claimed must be consistently practised in every-day intercourse with a people who can respect these attributes, and will eventually respond to them, and in certain instances possibly absorb them into their own lives." In a book written as this was there are, of course, many rather trivial things told, and most readers will regret some occasional attempts at humor and the too frequent use of sacred words. But these are minor blemishes in a work which gives much useful information about a little-known country and people, and in which there is special mention and hearty commendation of the valuable work of the missionaries. Many of the forty reproductions of photographs are exceedingly attractive, and an excellent map enables one easily to trace the route of the commission.

Personal Power: Counsels to College Men. By William Jewett Tucker. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. $1.50 net.

As President of Dartmouth College, Dr. Tucker exerted great influence upon his students in the direction of clean, wholesome, and effective life. His success as an administrator and builder was not less than his power as a moulder of student opinion. He found his college in a questionable position among New England institutions of the second rank, and he left it challenging the very first in respect to the importance and quality of its strictly college work. He came to Dartmouth, also, when general opinion did not credit the institution with the most helpful moral tone, but it was not long before Rollins Chapel was celebrated as one of the most powerful influences toward good morals among young men to be found east of the Hudson river. The present volume reveals his method and the secret of his power. It contains about twenty of his sermons and addresses at the opening of the academic year. The thought is vigorous and clear, if not profound, and the style is direct and simple. There is no eloquence, no pleading, none of the rhetorician's "action," but neither is there cant or commonplace. A visitor at Rollins Chapel once overheard a student's comment at the close of one of Dr. Tucker's services, "Wasn't that the slickest thing you ever heard?" Without disparagement, it may be said that the student's slang adjective was well chosen. President Tucker was always tactful, and there is a cleverness of approach and treatment in each of his discourses which one who bears in mind his audience and his purpose must greatly admire.

The morality of a tactful and successful college administrator is in constant danger. To lift student sentiment always a little higher, while realizing that perfection is impossible, to maintain the personal hold needful to impart carrying quality to one's words, is to be tempted constantly to do evil that good may come. One may ask, if Dr. Tucker has not yielded to this allurement in his admission that "the prevailing type of mind in the colleges is set toward affairs," and in his contentment in the fact that the scholar is no longer the exclusive or chief product of American academic life. The growing proportion of students who are devoid of the interests and ambitions of real scholarship finds no strong protest in his pages, but rather contented recognition. The reports which used to issue annually from Cambridge sounded a worthier note. Exaggeration of athletics has found little discouragement in Dartmouth utterances, if one may judge from this volume. The discourses are uplifting and instructive in a hundred directions in which American students need guidance, but in the two respects in which college men most need challenge, the loss of scholarly devotion and the over-emphasis upon athletics, they would have been better for a more resolute iconoclasm.

Notes.

Yale University Press will soon publish a work of peculiar timeliness, entitled "The High Court of Parliament and its Supremacy. An Historical Essay on the Boundaries between Legislation and Adjudication in England," by C. H. McIlwain, who is a member of the Department of History, Politics, and Economics at Princeton University.

We welcome the announcement of a new series of books, Harvard Studies in Comparative Literature, to be published under the general editorship of Prof. W. H. Schofield. It will comprise works by Harvard graduates or instructors. The volumes are to be handsomely printed at the Merrymount Press, and can be got separately, or by subscription at a discount of 10 per cent., from the Publication Agent of Harvard University. The first volume, now in press, is "Three Philosophical Poets—Lucretius, Dante, and Goethe," by Prof. George Santayana. Other works, in preparation, are as follows: "Poetic Values in Anglo-Saxon Verse—a Comparative Study," by Prof. Francis Burton Gummere; "Boethius," by Prof. Edward Kennard Rand; "The Old Norse Journeys to America," by Prof. Merritt Lyndon Fernald; "French Influences on Chaucer," by Prof. John Livingston Lowes; "The History of Allegory in Spain," by Dr. Chandler Rathfon Post; "The Literary Relations of England and Scandinavia from the Norman Conquest to 1300," by Dr. Henry Gordon Leach; "The Comedies of Ludwig Holberg," by Oscar James Campbell.

The John Lane Company announces the following forthcoming publications: "The Foundations of the Nineteenth Century," by Houston S. Chamberlain; "Robert Dodsley: Poet, Publisher, and Playwright," by Ralph Straus; "Memories of Sixty Years," by Oscar Browning; "John Lothrop Motley and His Family:" further letters and records edited by His Daughter and Herbert St. John Mildmay; "Simon Bolivar, 'El Liberator,'" by F. Loraine Petre; "Lady Charlotte Schreiber's Journals," edited by Montague Guest, with annotations by Egan Mew; "Self-Love: the Book of Pleasure"; "Indian Birds," by Douglas Dewar; "The Starlit Mire," by James Bertram and Russell Wilkinson; "Insect Wonderland," by Constance M. Foot; "What Pictures to See

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in Europe in One Summer," by L. L. M. Bryant; "Simon the Jester," by William J. Locke; "The Wicker-Work Woman," "The Elm Tree on the Mall," "The Opinions of Jerome Coignard," "The Aspirations of Jean Servien," and "At the Sign of the Reine Pédauque," by Anatole France; "Alongshore," by Stephen Reynolds; "The Way Up," by M. P. Willcox; "Tropical Tales," by Dolf Wyllarde; "The Saint's Progress," translated from the Italian of Ciro Alvi by Mary Gibson; "The Cradle of a Poet," by Elizabeth Godfrey; "Half in Earnest," by Muriel Hine, and "My Brother the King: The Tale of James Darcy (King James I of Yalmal) and His Sister, Wyemarke Darcy," by Edward H. Cooper.

Herbert Putnam, librarian of Congress, desires us to make known the fact that the "Report on the Star-Spangled Banner, Hail Columbia, America, Yankee Doodle," by O. G. T. Sonneck, chief of the division of music, which has been offered for sale by certain private concerns for $1.25, can be obtained of the superintendent of documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, at 85 cents a copy.

Gen. James Grant Wilson's entertaining volumes on "Thackeray in the United States," were originally issued in 1904, at the price of $12.50. By omitting the bibliography of 174 pages the two volumes are now published as one, by Dodd, Mead & Co., at the more comfortable price of $3.50. The old wealth of illustrations has been retained, and indeed six Thackeray drawings have been added. The book is a mine of interesting and characteristic anecdotes.

In the "Waverley Synopses," published by Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., J. Walker McSpadden has arranged Scott's novels chronologically, and under each title has given an alphabetical cast of the characters and a summary of the plot. A general index at the end makes the book more useful for speedy reference.

Percival Chubb has planned three small volumes of selections from Mark Twain, presenting that author less as a humorist than as an historian and autobiographer. Of these volumes the first, "Travels at Home," has just been issued by the Harpers. It is made up chiefly of experiences on the Mississippi and in the mining fields. Especially adapted for the higher classes of elementary schools, it will serve as a travelling companion for older readers. The energetic literary quality which is completely merged in the mazes of the complete books is here in a sense isolated and more palpable. The frontispiece is an excellent recent portrait of Mark Twain in the familiar white flannels.

It is sixteen years since Sarah M. H. Gardner's demurely charming book "Quaker Idyls" (Holt) saw the light. It is now reprinted, with the addition of two sketches. With singular delicacy and humor this author reveals the heroic tragedy of the Friends in contact with great causes, and the comedy of their contact with the sly and insistent world. The workmanship is always delightful, and the book simply must be read. There could be no pleasanter escape from the problem novels—though problems are here and are not evaded—and from the prevailing overemphasis.

"The Pageant of English Poetry" comes to us from the Oxford University Press in two forms, one being printed on India paper. It is an anthology of 1,150 poems and extracts by 300 authors, the arrangement being alphabetical by authors. It is an interesting treasury of song, the more interesting probably because it permits the liberty, unusual in anthologies, of printing parts of poems. Sometimes this liberty is, in our judgment, abused, as when, for instance, only two stanzas of Praed's "The Vicar," certainly the best thing Praed ever did, are given, although six pages are accorded him. The book is also out of the usual line of English anthologies in including American authors. For this we may be grateful, although it seems strange to find among the selections from Longfellow "The Slave's Dream" and "Excelsior," but not one of his noble sonnets. From the same house we have "The English Parnassus, an Anthology of Longer Poems," with introduction and notes by W. Macneile Dixon and H. J. C. Grierson. Works of such length are included as "The Knight's Tale," the third and fourth cantos of "Childe Harold" (though nothing from "Don Juan, perhaps *pudoris causa*), "In Memoriam," "Sohrab and Rustum," and the "Rubáiyát." The book is admirably adapted for use in college reading and in the higher school grades. With these anthologies may be mentioned "Eighteenth Century Literature: An Oxford Miscellany," which contains a number of rather slight papers by various writers on such topics as Steele and the Sentimental Comedy, Lady Winchelsea, Fielding's Jonathan Wild, Horace Walpole's Views on Literature, and Enthusiasm. The book affords pleasant reading.

The *National Geographic Magazine* for March contains an instructive account of the compass in navigation and the work of the non-magnetic yacht Carnegie, by its director, L. A. Bauer of the Carnegie Institution. To give the mariner correct information is the main purpose of the yacht's work in the recently finished cruise of 8,000 miles, and in the next to circumnavigate the globe. As the result, it is hoped that in five years the institution will be able to issue magnetic charts for nearly the whole earth, based for the first time upon uniformly and systematically acquired data. An earnest appeal for the proposed Glacier National Park in northern Montana is made by G. E. Mitchell of the Geological Survey. In addition to displaying wonderfully beautiful mountain scenery, the park is inhabited by wild animals and birds, and the streams and lakes abound in many kinds of fish. The project meets with favor in Canada and a railway to reach it may form a connecting link between the Canadian Pacific and Northern Railroads, to the great advantage of the farming region through which it would pass.

A comparison of the statistical data in the last edition of "Minerva" (1909-10), with the figures contained in the edition of fifteen years ago (1894-5), which we happen to have before us, shows a remarkable growth of the Slavic universities. In this short space of time Moscow has advanced from sixth to third place among the universities of the world, being inferior only to Paris and Berlin with respect to the number of students, while St. Petersburg, which was seventeenth in order, comes now next to Moscow. The two institutions have between them upward of 17,000 students, a figure which appears the more striking when we consider that it is about equal to the aggregate attendance at the score of German universities not longer ago than the Franco-Prussian war. Kharkov has quadrupled, having now above 4,000 students—as many as Harvard; Odessa, which had an attendance of only about 500 in 1895, has more than sextupled; and Kazan has increased from 800 to 2,900. The limitation of the number of Jewish students will account for the relatively slow growth of the university of Kiev, which is centrally located with respect to the Jewish population of Russia proper. The famous university of Dorpat, in Livonia, which has recently been Slavicized (the Russian language having supplanted the German in all the faculties except that of theology), has increased about 80 per cent. Muscovite repression in the former kingdom of Poland is manifested by the decline of the attendance at the University of Warsaw from 1,200 to 800. On the other hand, the vigorous and untrammelled assertion of Polish nationality in the composite realm of the Hapsburgs is evinced by the growth of the two Galician universities, those of Lemberg and Cracow, whose attendance has quadrupled and doubled respectively in these fifteen years. The Czech University of Prague, the focus of the intellectual activity of the Slavs of Bohemia and Moravia, established not quite three decades ago by the side of the oldest university within the bounds of the Germany of the Holy Roman Emperors, now boasts about 4,000 students, the increase since 1895 having been about 50 per cent. The Southern Slavs have, in their modest way, kept pace with their consonant-tongued brethren in the North. The university of Sophia, which, in 1895, had only 300 students, has now about 1,500, and the progressive spirit of new Bulgaria, only recently emancipated from its five centuries of thraldom under the Moslems, is revealed by the circumstance that above 200 of the students are women. The attendance at the Servian and Croatian universities (Belgrade and Agram) has increased 100 per cent. Russia has one important university which cannot be reckoned among Slavic institutions of learning, that of Helsingfors, in Finland, whose teaching body still consists of Swedes and Finns.

The Beguiling of Juries might fairly serve as the sub-title of Francis L. Wellman's "Day in Court" (Macmillan). The author describes with clearness, humor, and apt illustration, the arts by which juries are propitiated, witnesses confirmed or undermined, in short, the whole delicate conduct of a jury trial. Interesting as the book is it will leave the layman a little at a loss to see how substantial justice can result from such a process. Mr. Wellman, as a veteran pleader, naturally takes the severely professional view of the matter. For him a trial is mostly a contest of wits between opposing counsel, with the victory likely to turn to him who adds to wit moderation and tact. His examples of the right and wrong ways of introducing witnesses under direct examination are most instructive. It is in direct examination, not in the brilliant feats of cross-examination, he feels, that cases are won and lost. On every point of courtroom human nature he is illuminat-

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ing. Lawyers will naturally enjoy a book that magnifies their profession and sets it in a positively æsthetic light; young lawyers will find many practical hints in it. On the whole, however, the enlightening effect of this confessional volume will be greatest in the case of laymen. We know of few books that reveal so completely what one might call the legitimate histrionism of pleading—the delicate adjustment of demonstration to the capacities and prejudices of the twelve plain men in the box. Mr. Wellman's subject is the lawyer, but we wish he had approached the fundamental mystery how a jury verdict obtained under skilful manipulation by counsel will usually result in substantial justice. His conception of pleading is, though finer, not very far removed from the Greek and Roman precedents. The opportune exhibition of Phryne's bosom, or of the tears of the next of kin, would, unless we misread him, fully meet his approval. The paradox of essential justice surviving the wiles of the master advocate was worth elucidation. No one could attack the enigma more hopefully than Mr. Wellman. Possibly juries have a kind of transcendental sixth sense, which blindly makes for righteousness. Mr. Wellman's anecdote of that jury which, pestered by lying witnesses on both sides, agreed to ignore both the law and the evidence, and "find on the merits of the case," is suggestive. Again, the more familiar tale of the jury that, in spite of Rufus Choate's evidence, had to find for his client, being reluctantly constrained thereto by the law and the facts, may profitably be analyzed by lawyers of the ornate tradition. Among minor slips we may note an allusion on page 148 to a Tilden-Beecher trial, and the perverted form of a Ciceronian quotation on page 247. An excellent and most entertaining book.

Charles Ffoulkes's "Armor and Weapons" (Frowde) is a concise description of what the ordinary man wore, how he wore it, and how it was made in the days of chivalry and of the tournament. Originally the facts were given out in lecture form before the University of Oxford during the Lent term, 1909; they are here illustrated and magnified into a handbook for use in studying history and as a short guide to the somewhat intricate technicalities of the craft of the armorer. As an aid in following out the evolution of civilization and as an explanation of ancient modes of warfare with which the advance of civilization has been indissolubly connected, these studies hold something more than mere sentimental interest. Roughly speaking, the period of armorial defence extends from the Norman Conquest to about 1660, and may be divided into the age of mail (1066-1277); the transition period (1277-1410); and the era of plate armor (1410-1660). With our modern notions of defence, in which lightness and speed are the chief requisites, it is little short of ridiculous to read that the accoutrements of a cavalryman were sometimes so heavy that he could not mount his horse without assistance, and that in long marches he was often tempted to throw away his expensive outfit in order to conserve the strength of himself and his beast for the actual encounter with the enemy. This fact was especially in evidence during the period of plate armor, when the cavalry horse was covered from ears to tail with the most elaborate and costly steel which the craftsman could invent. By the middle of the sixteenth century, the influence of the Renaissance brought about an arabesque strangeness and grotesqueness which marked the beginning decadence of the *homme de fer*. With an attempt at ornateness the practical utility of armor began to decline, though it was still commonly worn in pageant, joust, and parade well on into the seventeenth century. Leg armor was the first to go, the jambs being replaced by buff leather boots, a distinct forerunner of modern cavalry leggings. The epoch most advantageous for the study of armor in its perfection is the fifteenth century. The Renaissance, so rich in the materials out of which what we are pleased to call the higher civilization has been woven, tolled the death knell of the crafts.

In a reprint of Mrs. Everett Green's "Elizabeth Electress of Palatine and Queen of Bohemia" (Dutton), we have another illustration—following the recent lives of Madame, Mère du Régent, and the lives of the Duchess Sophia and the Princess Elizabeth—of a singular revival of interest in that branch of the Stuart family. The present work is taken from Mrs. Green's "Lives of the Princesses of England" (1849-1855), and has been revised in some minor details by the author's niece, Mrs. S. C. Lomas. It is a sympathetic study, based on thorough documentary knowledge, of a life of strange romance and adventure. Mrs. Lomas in the introduction discusses the moot points, whether the Elector Palatine plotted to obtain the crown of Bohemia before his election in 1619, and whether Elizabeth urged him to accept that crown. Mrs. Green had given a negative answer to the first of these questions; her editor maintains that such a view cannot be correct. On the second point Mrs. Green had no doubts, and represented Elizabeth as exerting all her powers to influence her husband to take the throne; Mrs. Lomas brings strong evidence to show that her part in the affair was rather passive than active, taking "a normal and womanly course, probably more in favor of acceptance than against it, but willing to do what her husband and her friends thought right."

The first volume of Prof. Charles Foster Kent's "Student's Old Testament" appeared in 1904, and an interval of nearly three years separates the third volume of the series from the present issue, "The Sermons, Epistles, and Apocalypses of Israel's Prophets" (Scribner). In this fourth volume the canonical prophetical writings appear in a new translation, more literal than the usual versions, arranged in chronological order, with appropriate headings and brief explanatory notes, and with indication of later additions and glosses. The work is the result of great pains and of minute and scholarly examination of the text. Care has been taken to summarize the labors of a large number of critical scholars, including the German authorities. The period covered extends from the earliest literary prophecies to the fragmentary messianic and eschatological discourses embedded in the larger canonical collections. As a handbook for the study of any period of Hebrew prophecy, or for the study of the development of the history and religion of Israel, the work is of great value. Professor Kent is cautious in accepting the emendations of the Hebrew text suggested by Duhm, Marti, and Cheyne.

From Lemcke & Buechner we have received "Lettres d'amour à Aimée d'Alton," by Alfred de Musset. The poet fell in with this descendant of an Irish refugee and was captivated by her desire to reform him. To effect this difficult task, she readily submitted to all incidental intimacies. The affair lasted something more than two years, and furnished the motive for one of his best stories, "Le Fils du Titien." To her, besides the sonnets in the story, was written the well-known poem "Charmant petit moinillon blanc." After the death of Alfred, Aimée became first the mistress and, at fifty, the wife of his brother Paul, whom she outlived. She cherished the memory of what she called "mes Musset," and under advice of M. Troubat gave Alfred's letters under seal to the Bibliothèque Nationale. It seems to us that it was hardly worth Léon Séché's while to rescue them from the files. Aimée's heart was apparently in the right place, but her lover took her with little seriousness. He calls her his doll, and gives the impression of her which is confirmed by the Sèvres statuette forming the frontispiece of this volume. One letter, in which he declines her proposal to marry him and reform him altogether, is true Musset, displaying that severe clairvoyance and self-knowledge which occasionally make a wilful sentimentalist seem almost a man. But, in the main, these are scraps of notes, outcries of a coquettish passion, mere arrangements for rendezvous; the very smallest beer, in short, of what was never a very great passion. To eke out a book these notelets are printed each on its separate page and "Le Fils du Titien" added as an appendix. The material for a minor essay has thus been commercially distended, a proceeding unworthy the standing of the editor and of the publisher, the Mercure de France.

It is surprising how little is known, outside of German circles, of the history and activities of the German organizations in America. It is an interesting fact in institutional history that the patriotic societies formed for the cultivation of the German language and literature (the so-called Sprachgesellschaften) of the seventeenth century should have found a new lease of life in the German societies of America. These associations in the seaboard cities of America arose out of the necessity of aiding needy German immigrants upon their arrival. The oldest of these societies is the German Society of Pennsylvania, founded in 1764. The example of Pennsylvania was followed by Georgia; by South Carolina, with its German Society founded in 1766; by Maryland, with its German Society in 1783; and New York, with its German Society in 1784. The Societies of Pennsylvania and New York have already found their historians in Seidensticker and Eickhoff. The Maryland Society now has its chronicler in Louis P. Hennighausen, whose "History of the German Society of Maryland" (read at the meetings of the Society for the History of the Germans in Maryland, 1909; for sale by W. E.

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C. Harrison & Sons of Baltimore), renders valuable service in clearing up the early history of the society, fixing the date of its formation as 1783, and shedding new light upon its earlier Southern predecessor, the German Society of Charleston, S. C., founded in 1766. The author gives a graphic account of the significance of these societies, and of the Maryland one in particular, in bringing about humane legislation on immigration.

"The Hebrew Prophets for English Readers," edited by Francis H. Woods and Francis E. Powell, arranges the Revised Version in poetical form and in sections with brief notes and appropriate headings. These helps, though meagre, are sufficient to bring clear meaning into passages which the reader of the text alone finds obscure. The second volume includes Zephaniah, Nahum, Habakkuk, and Jeremiah (Henry Frowde).

The distinguished German poet and novelist, Dr. Paul Heyse, celebrated on March 15, his eightieth birthday and received warm congratulations from all parts of his fatherland as well as from many other countries of the civilized world. On this occasion he was presented with an album containing the signatures of three hundred admirers, including the German Emperor and other sovereigns, and the most prominent representatives of intellectual life in Germany. Heyse published his first book, the tragedy "Franceska von Rimini," when he was twenty years of age, and since then he has been for sixty years a very productive and popular author, and shows as an octogenarian no diminution of his intellectual abilities and literary qualities. This is evident from his five short stories just published in a volume entitled "Helldunkles Leben."

Charles Edwin Hurd, literary editor of the Boston *Transcript* from 1874 to 1901, and previously connected with other Boston and New England newspapers, died last Thursday at the age of seventy-six. He had published "New England Library of Genealogy and Personal History," and "History of the United States."

Samuel Langhorne Clemens (Mark Twain) died last Thursday evening at Stormfield, his country home in Redding, Conn., at the age of seventy-four. He was born in Florida, Mo., November 30, 1835. Three years later his family removed to Hannibal, Mo., where he attended the common schools, and at the age of twelve became a printer's apprentice in the office of the Hannibal *Weekly Journal*. After learning his trade, he became a tramp printer, and before he was sixteen years old had worked in composing rooms of newspapers in St. Louis, Cincinnati, Philadelphia, and New York. In 1851 he returned to Hannibal, where he again worked as a printer and as a clerk on river boats, and in 1859 he took out a river pilot's license. For a few months in 1861 he served in the Confederate army under Gen. Sterling Price, but in the same year became private secretary to his brother, who had been appointed territorial secretary of Nevada, and went with him to Carson City. He remained here about a year, and then went to Virginia City (in the same Territory), where he became city editor of the *Enterprise* newspaper. For this newspaper he wrote sketches of mining camp characters, and episodes, which he signed with his afterward famous pseudonym, "Mark Twain"—derived from the river leadsman's parlance, and meaning two "marks" on the sounding line, that is, two fathoms.

These signed articles at once attracted attention, and in 1865 he became a member of the staff of the San Francisco *Call*, but remained there only about six months and then went into the mining region of Calaveras County, Cal., where he found much of the material for the book which was to establish his fame in the East, "The Jumping Frog of Calaveras County." In 1866 Clemens went to the Sandwich Islands, of which he wrote sketches for the Sacramento *Union*. He then (1868) engaged to go abroad with a party of tourists and write a descriptive account of his journey for a group of newspapers. Out of these letters he subsequently made his famous book, "Innocents Abroad." Soon after his return he became editor of the Buffalo *Express*, where he remained for two years. Thereafter he went to live in Hartford. In 1884 he invested heavily in the Charles L. Webster Company, a publishing concern, whose failure ten years later swept away virtually all of his means and left him heavily in debt, every penny of which he repaid after a highly successful round-the-world lecturing tour. In 1907 he received the honorary degree of doctor of letters from Oxford University. His publications include: "The Jumping Frog," "The Innocents Atroad," "The Gilded Age" (with Warner), "Roughing It," "Sketches New and Old," "Adventures of Tom Sawyer," "A Tramp Abroad," "The Prince and the Pauper," "The Stolen White Elephant," "Life on the Mississippi," "The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn," "A Yankee at the Court of King Arthur," "The American Claimant," "The £1,000,000 Bank Note," "Pudd'nhead Wilson," "Tom Sawyer Abroad," "Joan of Arc," "More Tramps Abroad," "The Man that Corrupted Hadleyburg," "Christian Science." At the time of his death he was engaged in writing his reminiscences, parts of which have been published in *Harper's Magazine*.

Science.

THE NATIONAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES.

WASHINGTON, D. C., April 21.

The annual session of the National Academy of Sciences, held in this city from April 19 to April 21, has been one of the largest and most successful meetings held by that body in many years. The printed programme contained thirty-three titles of papers, of which the time permitted presentation of only twenty. Without doubt, the papers of most general interest were those by George E. Hale of the Mt. Wilson Solar Observatory on Solar Magnetism, and on some visual and photographic observations of Mars. With the unparalleled facilities at his command for the study of the spectrum of the sun, Mr. Hale was able to make about two years ago the remarkable discovery of the vortical rotation of sun spots, observed by photographing the spectrum of low-lying iron vapor and the high level clouds of hydrogen present in the sun. Certain separations of spectrum lines showed the presence in these vortices of strong magnetic fields. These fields Mr. Hale accounts for by the presence in the whirling vapor of electrically charged particles or electrons, the rotation of which constitutes an electric current. This discovery is undoubtedly one of the great achievements of American astrophysics. Mr. Hale also exhibited a number of recent photographs of Mars which, far from showing the geometrical structure or net work of fine lines that have been described by recent Martian observers, failed completely to give any indication of such geometrical structure. We may mention also the paper on the spectrum of Mars as photographed with high dispersion by W. W. Campbell and Sebastian Albrecht of the Lick Observatory. Photographs made last autumn on the top of Mt. Wilson, the highest point in the United States proper, in a dry climate, gave results that have been completely confirmed by observations made this year at Mt. Hamilton, in which the lines due to water vapor or oxygen on Mars were separated from the similar lines due to these substances in the earth's atmosphere, by utilizing the displacement due to the motion of Mars relative to the earth. The result proved that water vapor is absent on Mars, or at least that there must be much less per unit of area than there is over Mt. Wilson or Mt. Hamilton.

A paper of great practical interest was read by Gen. H. L. Abbott on the Hydraulics of the Chagres River, on which there is probably no more competent authority. The disposal of the rainfall by the river, by soaking into the spongy ground and by evaporation, was carefully studied, with the result that it should seem impossible to dispose of the great amount of water precipitated from the enormous freshets on the isthmus without a system of controlling locks, for the reason that for the lowest twenty-seven miles the river has virtually no fall and the water backs up in vast quantities. This, in General Abbott's opinion, effectually disposes of the project of a sea-level canal and confirms the theories of the French engineers and our own expert commission.

The paper by Dr. Franz Boas, of the American Museum of Natural History, on the influence of environment on human type, made with the assistance of the American Bureau of Immigration, led to the conclusion that European types are undergoing profound modification in this country. Measurements of children born within ten years of the arrival of the mother in this country show decided change in the cephalic index (*i. e.*, the ratio of the width to the

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length of the head), which has long been regarded as one of the most unchanging of anthropometric characteristics. Although, in general, under the conditions in this country, the physical condition is improved, in the case of Sicilians this is not the case. Nevertheless, the cephalic index in the case of the Jews has decreased by as much as 5 per cent., while the smaller index of the Sicilians has increased by almost the same amount, so that, under American environment, Jews and Sicilians are now nearly alike in this respect. The broad face of the Bohemians has become noticeably narrower in this country.

In geology, C. D. Walcott of the Smithsonian Institution, presented a paper, with many slides, illustrating the development of Olenellus, a fossil belonging to the Cambrian Epoch, on which he is our leading authority. This fossil Trilobite is a crustacean, much resembling the horse-shoe crab, which was stated to be the dominant organism of its epoch, if not the superman perhaps the super-crab. This Trilobite exists in a stratum of about 5,000 feet in thickness, and Mr. Walcott has not only examined the Rocky Mountains, but has sent expeditions to Sweden, Russia, India, and China. Not the least interesting of his results was the discovery that Trilobites, hitherto supposed to have been blind, possessed a well developed multiple eye, by which they could see as well as present-day crabs.

George F. Becker of the United States Geological Survey, presented a paper on the evidence of denudation in relation to the age of the earth. Mr. Becker's method seems to be entirely new, and consists in finding the amount of salt in the sea and accounting for that salt by the decomposition of feldspathic rocks carried down by the rivers. Some of this salt is returned in the air and falls on the land. Estimating that between 98,000,000 and 142,000,000 of tons of salt are annually washed into the sea, and assuming that the annual amount lost to the land is proportional to the amount remaining, Mr. Becker arrived at the earth's age as between fifty and seventy-five millions of years—a result gratifying to the physicists as coming from a geologist, since fifty years ago Lord Kelvin's estimate of several hundred millions of years was looked upon by the geologists as preposterously short. Mr. Becker has confirmed his calculation by arguments from the cooling of the earth similar to Lord Kelvin's.

S. W. Stratton, director of the Bureau of Standards, gave a very clear and interesting account of the methods of that great physical laboratory belonging to the government. The Bureau is divided into divisions dealing with all questions relating in any manner to measurements connected with (1) mass and length, (2) heat, (3) light, (4) electricity and magnetism, (5) chemistry, (6) engineering problems and the properties of materials. In the past year the Bureau has done work for every other Government bureau, for a large number of universities and scientific institutions, and for many firms and individuals.

A. L. Day, director of the Geophysical Laboratory of the Carnegie Institution at Washington, described his Bureau, which has for its immediate problem the determination of the condition of formation of the rocks found in the crust of the earth. In order to determine their temperatures of formation, not necessarily to their melting points, more exact data were required, according to Mr. Day, than physics can afford the geologist. Great attention has, therefore, been paid to high temperature measurements, in which Mr. Day is an expert. Not only thermal data are requisite, but it is necessary that the minerals examined be in a high state of purity, and for this elaborate chemical researches are necessary. This laboratory is undoubtedly one of the great undertakings of the Carnegie Institution. In this connection may be mentioned the paper of J. M. Crafts, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, on the gas thermometer, which he has been developing with wonderful precision for the last thirty years, long before there were either bureaus of standards or geophysical laboratories. As a result of Mr. Craft's researches, we have the method of tempering the glass used in the thermometers of precision which can determine temperatures with an exactness of the one-thousandth part of a degree.

Within a few weeks the Academy has sustained a great loss in the person of its former president, and actual foreign secretary, Alexander Agassiz. Feeling reference was made to his career and interest in the academy by President Remsen, and at the pleasant dinner given by the Washington members, a letter was read from Agassiz to the home secretary, Mr. Hague, proposing to offer a dinner to the Academy at the time of the present session in honor of the eightieth birthday of Dr. Weir Mitchell. Dr. Mitchell responded with much feeling and his health was drunk.

George E. Hale was elected foreign secretary. The following new members were elected: In mathematical astronomy, Forest Ray Moulton of the University of Chicago; in chemistry, William Albert Noyes of the University of Illinois and Thomas Burr Osborne of the Connecticut Agricultural Experiment Station; in palæontology, Charles Schuchert of Yale University; in botany, Douglas Houghton Campbell of Stanford University; in physiology, Jacques Loeb of the University of California; in philosophy, John Dewey of Columbia University; as foreign associate, Giovanni Schiaparelli of Milan. A visit was made to the magnificent new national museum in which, by the courtesy of the Smithsonian, the Academy expects to meet next year.

ARTHUR GORDON WEBSTER.

THE LIFE OF ANTS.

Ant Communities and How They Are Governed. A Study in Natural Civics. By Henry Christopher McCook. Illustrated from Nature. New York: Harper & Bros. $2 net.

In this volume Dr. McCook presents another of his most interesting and informing studies of the insect world, taking for his subject the ants, which he deals with especially as social animals. The sub-title, "A Study in Natural Civics," refers to what Dr. McCook regards as "parallels, more or less distinct, between the communal actions of ants considered simply as natural history, and the communal actions of man, considered, as all human beings are bound to consider them, in their relation to the highest welfare of the race." On this topic, he says:

> In many of the higher and complex duties of human communities it is impossible that insects should be models for men, in whom there is an element that separates from all other creatures by an impassable gulf. But in the great physical functions of a commune, which are a bond of sympathy between us, we may have something to learn from the ants, who manifestly have kept and still keep the primitive ways of nature more closely than we.

Dr. McCook satisfied himself that an actual communal relation existed between the inmates of a group of seventeen hundred well-developed ant-hills, which he found within a space of fifty acres, near Hollidaysburg, Penna.:

> A small oak-branch, covered with aphides and their attendant ants, was broken from a tree and placed upon a mound twenty rods distant. It was thought that if anything would incite to hostility, it would be the intrusion of members of a separate community upon a congener's feeding grounds. On the contrary, the ants being called from the hill, came out and mounted the branch with the usual excited bearing, and then mingled with its original occupants on friendly terms, and began to feed quietly from the galls and aphides. . . . A spadeful of earth was swiftly cut from the mound, and with the ants, cocoons, and broken cells, thrown into a pail, carried to a cone fifty rods distant and cast upon the surface and around the lower gates. . . . After the first sharp challenges with crossed antennæ the imported ants melted away into the general community as though at home. . . . Thus it appeared (and to the writer it was then an astounding revelation) that among the myriads of creatures occupying these more than one thousand seven hundred mounds there was a complete fraternity—if, indeed, they were not one mighty confederacy! Here was a republic which in

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the number of its separate states—for every mound was an independent community of ants—and in the multitude of its total population exceeded the most sanguine prophecy of the future of the American republic.

Dr. McCook calls attention to "a well-defined division of labor among the worker castes, viz., workers-major, workers-minor, and minims or dwarfs." And there are sentinels or policemen, masons or builders, foragers, nurses, and courtiers or queen's body-guard, but "apparently all branches of service have recruits from all the castes, and these pass from one to another at will. On the surface (as far as human intelligence discerns) it is a 'go-as-you-please' arrangement, which nevertheless is dominated by some occult principle that brings orderly results out of seeming chaos." And our author makes the further remarkable observation that "among these millions of citizens, there is not one criminal, not one degenerate! I do not recall, in all my long and varied observations, a single example of an ant whose actual offending called for the administration of civil punishment." Here, he says is "the perfect social commune whose citizens are all perfect in that 'righteousness which is of the law.'" Our enormous office buildings are, indeed, wonderful structures (and are often aptly likened to ant-hills), but as mere achievements in building, relative to the size of the builder, they are far less remarkable than ant architecture:

> Those who are curious in such comparisons find grounds here for a striking parallel between the achievement of an ant three-eighths of an inch high (long), and of a man one hundred and seventy-six times as high (five and one-half feet.) Were we to reckon a proportionate rate of progress between the two on the basis of height, one man would have to be credited with a 'storied structure 1,408 feet deep. Apart from such fanciful comparisons, it is certainly well calculated to excite our wonder that such insignificant creatures can, by their united exertions, bring about results so vast, unaided by mechanical contrivances.

And as to the physical strength of the ant, Dr. McCook observes:

> I have often admired the vigor and skill shown by baggage-porters in shouldering and bearing up several flights of stairs the immense trunks which American ladies take with them on their travels. But here, if we may be indulged in the comparison, is an insect three-eighths of an inch long (and the worker-minors are shorter), who can carry up sharp inclines and perpendicular surfaces, over distances three-hundred times its length, a burden six to ten times its weight. If, as heretofore, we estimate the average man at one hundred and fifty pounds in weight, our baggage-porter would needs carry a half-ton trunk up one-tenth of a mile of stairway to meet on equal footing the emmet athletes of the occident anthills!

Readers who are familiar with Dr. McCook's manner of approaching his subjects will not need to be told that he does not indulge many of these popular comparisons, which, he is at pains to remark, "are apt to be superficial and misleading," but the foregoing ones seem quite admissable, and actually instructive.

Only in this general way can we indicate Dr. McCook's method of treating this most interesting subject in natural history. Throughout he is at once the careful observer who sees details in relation to essentials, and presents the results of his observations in simple and lucid description which bears all the evidence of versimilitude. In this manner, he treats the Feeding of the Commune, The Language of Ants, and Other Insects, How Ants Communicate, Female Government in Ant-Communities, Warrior Ants, and Their Equipment for War, How Ants Carry On War, The Founding of Slave-Making Ant Communes, and Problems of Sanitation and Personal Benevolence. The illustrations, which are clearly drawn sketches, are of great assistance.

Drama.

With all its artificiality and sacrifice of sense to sentiment, the "Caste" of Tom Robertson is still an effective play, owing to its cleverly devised situations, its romantic story, and the vitality of its personages. It has now been revived in the Empire Theatre, in this city, with what is described as an "all-star cast," but the representation, though good as a whole, is not equal to several of those seen in this city in former years. Judged by modern standards of motive and construction, the piece is thin in substance and violent in mechanism, and the only valid reason for its revival is to furnish a specimen of what was best in mid-Victorian comedy. The characters and the atmosphere now are of more importance than the play. These have not been reproduced with general success at the Empire. As a rule the plebeians are more satisfactorily embodied than the aristocrats. The Eccles of G. P. Huntley is an exceedingly humorous bit of low comedy, but is inferior to the impersonations of such men as Honey and Davidge both in variety and force. These actors were wont to infuse a dash of passion into their drunken ravings which suggested the power for mischief existing in just such degraded agitators. Grahame Brown, as Gerridge, was a typical workman, if not a typical cockney. Miss Elsie Ferguson played Esther with pleasant simplicity. She did not make the mistake of adopting a manner altogether superior to her supposed station, as other Esthers have done before her, and in the crucial situations displayed natural and sympathetic emotion. The Polly of Marie Tempest, though amusing, and very smart in the theatrical sense, was too full of manifest artifice to create realistic illusion. The youthful, sanguine, and ardent George D'Alroy, in the hands of Edwin Arden—a player of a most inflexible style—assumed the grave and resolute habit of middle age. Julian Royce was partly successful in catching the languid, "haw-haw" manner of the heavy cavalryman, Hawtree, but failed to suggest the real man beneath the foppish exterior. Maud Milton gave to the Marquise an affected air, but no real distinction. The revival was received with much favor, and affords as good theatrical entertainment as can now be found in the city.

Ludwig Fulda's "Das Exempel" (imported by G. E. Stechert & Co.) is an unpretentious play rising but little above the clever mediocrity of Blumenthal and Kadelburg. The theme is interesting and timely, illustrating in lively fashion the theories of love and marriage which the ultra-new women of Germany attempt to put into practice. To show their ineptitude the author needs to present the heroine as undergoing a change in character; but instead of having this change come about naturally from within, he resorts to espionage and other hackneyed theatrical tricks, and the play, which had in it the material for a capital modern comedy, ends like a hundred others built upon a similar motive.

"Sieben Einakter" is a volume of enjoyable and actable little plays by Ludwig Fulda, recently imported by G. E. Stechert & Co., all of which had been separately published before.

Richard Dehmel is not contented with being the foremost poet of Germany, now that Liliencron is gone, but is reminding his admirers of the fact, that he, too, aspires for dramatic honors. The new edition of "Der Mitmensch," which comes from S. Fischer of Berlin, is considerably changed from the first version published in 1895, and played by an academic society some years ago. The work was then pronounced a dismal failure, and when performed in its present form at the beginning of this season gave the same impression. The paradoxical treatise, "Tragik und Drama," which serves as preface to the book, is likely to interest more than the play itself. Dehmel sees in the decadence of pure tragedy a result of our monistic reading of life which knows no complete annihilation but sees in every death a new birth. He maintains that the headstrong characters which are brought into drama, with all their irrational passion for power, simply to justify the working of tragic fate, are out of place in our time:

> In spite of Nietzsche, it is no longer great to rise beyond one's self and to die in the attempt. For that is something man shares with every moth that is burnt and every bubble that bursts. Of course, we cannot undo the fate that rules everything, but for that very reason it is no longer an heroic manifestation of the human will blindly to rush beneath its wheels. . . . Therefore, we have no longer the spontaneous, blindly instinctive reverence for the sacred desire of vengeance, which is satisfied by tragedy; we feel superior when we punish by contempt, and this moral sentiment is æsthetically more related to comic or tragic malice.

Formerly, Herr Dehmel continues, the question was asked: "What is life worth to us?"; to-day it reads: "What are we worth to life?" There is as much unhappiness in the world as ever, and always will be, but "it will not always be the

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acme of nobility to take that fact tragically."

Carl Hauptmann has published a volume of plays symbolically entitled "Panspiele" (München: G. D. W. Callwey). The friends which the author made during his stay in American will find in this book the little masterpiece entitled "Im goldenen Tempelbuche verzeichnet," which made such a profound impression, when read in the German théatre in New York. This dramatic poem in three scenes, founded upon a Japanese sketch, and, as he indicates, "to be played behind veils," is a gem of that poetic impressionism in which he excels all his German contemporaries. In dignity and purity of diction and delicacy of imagery it is perhaps unequalled by anything that has recently come from a German pen. The book admirably reflects the quaint personality of the author and is remarkably varied in mood and manner. Nothing more grimly humorous could be conceived than the one-act comedy "Der Antiquar," with its original treatment of a triangular relation. The tragicomedy called "Fasching" is vibrant with carnival joy, and like the preceding has some clever bits of characterization. "Frau Nadja Bielew" is unsatisfactory. It is one of those works in which the author's mannerisms counteract the effect he intends to produce.

Music.

The Rhythm of Modern Music. By C. F. Abdy Williams. New York: The Macmillan Co. $1.50 net.

Rhythm is what is left of music if you take away melody and harmony. Tap a tune on the table and you have its rhythm unalloyed. The Salvationist's drum represents this element of music in its most elementary form; from this to the complex combinations of Liszt, Chopin, and Strauss there is the same progress as from the simple chords of a hymn tune to the complicated harmonies of Wagner's "Tristan." The object of Mr. Williams in this book is to show that such rhythmic complications and elaborations are not due to a desire to do anything out of the common, but are the genuine art expressions in a highly civilized and complicated condition of society.

In the days when instrumental music had not yet become an independent art the church looked with disfavor on rhythm because of its association with worldly pleasures, especially the dance; yet that people felt the want of it is shown by the edicts forbidding the playing of dance music on the organ. An impediment to its development lay in the fact that the organ was the first instrument to attain artistic maturity, and the organ lacks accent, which is the soul of rhythm. Accent was also missing in the harpsichords and clavichords, and it was only when these were developed into the pianoforte, on which, as the name indicates, one could play loud or softly at will, that rhythm in art music began to come into its own. Bach's fugues are full of rhythmic interest; "with him," as the author remarks, "rhythm is not merely a framework on which to build harmonic and contrapuntal combinations, but he makes it more or less a living thing, and greatly adds thereby to the power of instrumental music."

Thenceforth the development of this element was more rapid, in spite of the opposition of conservatives who tried to stop the evolution of rhythm as well as that of harmony. Schubert was found fault with because his phrases did not always conform to the orthodox four-measure construction. But Schubert was simply in advance of his age; the irregularity of some of his music is to us one of its chief charms. A further development lay in the simultaneous use of two or more different rhythmical motives—a proceeding which often results in sublime effects. Modern music is likely to develop still further in this and other directions, some unthought of hitherto, others simply an assimilation of old rhythms from exotic sources; the five-four rhythm, for example, which is so rare in our music as to seem eccentric, was in favor with the ancient Greeks and is found in the folk music of Turks, Finns, negroes, Basques, and in Bavarian and Bohemian dances. In contrast with these we have also, in Strauss and others, passages of rhythmless music which seem daring, but find their justification in the "programme" they illustrate. In these diverse ways rhythm, from being merely an element of form, has become, in our days, "a very powerful means of expression."

To prove this last assertion is the main object of Mr. Williams's book. He has much to say about accents, phrasing, anacrusis, tempo, pauses, rests, staccato, rubato, and divers other points; but the value of his volume lies chiefly in the emphasizing of this expressional aspect of rhythm. As he well says: "So subtle is the art of music, that the undue lengthening or shortening of a single note will sometimes alter the whole character of a phrase." Players as a rule pay much more attention to melody and harmony than to rhythmic subtleties, and so do most listeners. All of these will find this book a valuable aid to the appreciation of modern music. It would be more valuable still if the author had shown more catholicity in the choice of his abundant musical illustrations. One may pardon in an English writer the inclusion of two English works among the six which he subjects to a detailed rhythmic analysis, but it is annoying to find almost all the shorter illustrations taken from the works of Brahms, while Wagner, Liszt, and Chopin, who are rhythmically even more remarkable and who preceded Brahms in various innovations, are almost ignored. Some of the points made could have been driven home more effectively by citations from Liszt's book on Hungarian music and by the remarks of Schumann and Wagner on the tyranny of the bar in musical notation.

Art.

Manet and the French Impressionists. By Théodore Duret. Forty illustrations, including four original etchings. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.75 net.

So much sheer rhetoric and flummery has been written about the Impressionists that it is a pleasure to find, translated and in amplified form, a book, in which objective common sense prevails. M. Duret is, in the main, the annalist, not the critic of the movement. We follow, year by year, the work of Manet, Monet, Sisley, Renoir, Berthe Morisot, Cézanne, and Guillaumin, hear of their exhibitions, and disastrous auction sales, mark the attitude of the public and the critics, rejoice in the appearance of an intelligent patronage—in general, deal with the externals of the movement from the beginning until today. M. Duret nowhere undertakes a real analysis of the style. For him, these friends and comrades were merely fine enthusiasts with a love of out-of-doors, a predilection for the bright colors, and a loathing of dark shadows and formal composition. One could read the book without learning of Manet's doctrine of planes, or Monet's theory of the vibratory quality of juxtaposed colors. For such matters, one must still go to Geffroy, George Moore, MacColl, or Brownell.

Possibly because of these limitations, this book is wholesome. It seems to normalize facts that have been presented with undue mystery. We see simply a group of fellow-minds, struggling in quite a human way for publicity and sales, sharing a nonchalant attitude toward composition and an exquisitely experimental manner of applying bright colors to canvas. It is well to be reminded that Cézanne was a provincial, a conservative, and a devout Catholic. In these men, who have been travestied as traitors or heroes, there was a quite usual work-a-day streak. They merely happened to like beautiful color which the world, through unfamiliarity, had come to scorn, and to affect sunlit subjects which the routine painters dared not undertake. It was unquestionably Manet who proved that a finer structure could be got out of well-balanced planes of bright color than out of darkly shadowed forms. But this Fragonard, in a less strenuous spirit, understood, and Delacroix quite scientifically. Indeed, so far as color goes, the Impressionists were in the true French tradition, the

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Institute being astray. The weakness of the new school was its disregard of composition, form, and all the reflective qualities of painting. In their passion for atmosphere, all mere objects became indifferent. Just enough suggestion of form to supply solar reflections or to hang saturated vapors upon sufficed these innovators. The result is a fusion and liquidation of the data of landscape which, while not without its beautiful and distinguished quality, represents an excessive sacrifice to the notion of aerial envelopment. The landscape painters of China and Japan get more exquisitely, by fine placing and indication of objects, pretty much all the effects which the Impressionist gains by effacing them and generally over-manipulating the surfaces. "The sensation which they wished to convey," writes M. Duret, "was that of movement and light, and they could often only achieve this by leaving forms and outlines in a state of indecision and flux." The answer to this apology is that the balance of excellence seems to be shifting to those devotees of impressionistic color who retained certain traditions of draughtsmanship and composition. Unless it be Cézanne, the most strenuous executant of the group and the least bound by its formulas, no one of them seems likely to stand the test of time so long as their forerunner Manet, and such remote allies as Degas, Besnard, at his rare best, and Mary Cassatt. All of these, be it noted, are in a considerable degree traditionalists. Cézanne was a true archaic, painting as if the world began with him. He seems more significant than the group which built up a formula out of the practice of Manet and the scientific theories of Monet.

The future may possibly regard the movement as a magnificent aberration. It will not fail to note that such a revolution was necessary, and that the art of painting has been thereby transformed and greatly benefited. We may expect, in fact begin to see, a saner vision of landscape prevailing. But, as M. Duret says, pretty much everybody to-day is more or less an impressionist. The word "may be said to be applied to all artists whose works reveal an instantaneous rendering of nature, by means of bright coloration freed from conventional shadow." Let us amend by saying that this instantaneous rendering of nature is a pure myth—merely a forcible antithesis by which to condemn the usual studio procedure. Let us say swift, instead of instantaneous, and we shall be near the fact. For purposes of observation and preliminary study, the value of such immediacy of vision and celerity of notation cannot well be exaggerated. But the task of the artist will, as it has ever been, be to revise, combine, and articulate these impressions. In such a process, there should be not merely no attenuation, but actual enrichment. The fact that these valiant workers under the sun have not accepted this truth has limited their achievement. They abound in admirable sketches, in suggestions of evanescent charm, they have enlarged our vision; whether any or all of them have produced anything as significant and permanently valuable as a fine Constable or Rousseau, may well be doubted.

However that may be, no one who reads in M. Duret's pages the honorable record of the Impressionists can fail to be moved to admiration. Here are many illustrations, which often give a blurred effigy of the originals. Only the figure painters abide this transcription successfully. Four original etchings by Manet, Morisot, and Renoir (2) are actual documents of this art. The letter press and whole makeup of this in quarto are exemplary. J. E. Crawford Flitch's translation reads like an original. An appendix with a catalogue of Manet's works is of evident utility. It is a book which every admirer of the school will wish to place beside those more critical volumes, the most important of which have been mentioned above.

In recent numbers of the *American Architect*, William H. Goodyear has largely supplemented his studies of concealed curves, asymmetries, and similar refinements in mediæval architecture. He reviews as well certain polemical aspects of the question. Admitted by Violet le Duc and Ruskin, and perceived by Choisy, this principle of calculated asymmetry has been worked out elaborately by Professor Goodyear. It was he who invented the most expeditious method of ascertaining divergences from the perpendicular. By photographing across a plumbline with a carefully levelled camera all slanting columns or walls are immediately revealed, and the amount of the divergence may be roughly calculated by the use of a surveyor's disk or by comparisons with minor features of the building of which the dimensions are known. In many quarters the value of Professor Goodyear's investigations was generously recognized. His numerous honorary memberships in European learned bodies attest it. Among foreign critics, Baron Geymüller and Professors Choisy and Cloquet; among Americans the late Russell Sturgis, A. L. Frothingham, and many practising architects have accepted his views, some have put the rediscovered refinements into practice. A few architects, particularly in England, have declared that the discoveries were illusory, representing either false photographic observations or accidental irregularities, due to settling or other damage to the building. Against the theory of settling weighs heavily the fact that an outlean, often amounting to a yard or more in the walls of a nave, must, if due to settling, have caused extensive dislocation of the vaulting. The most notable cases of outlean show no such damaged vaults. Furthermore, it is significant that the titular architects of such buildings as the cathedrals of Pisa, Venice, Rheims, Amiens, with other church architects, have accepted Professor Goodyear's views. These gentlemen are in a position to know if the noted irregularities in the buildings under their charge are or are not due to settling. A few critics have objected to Professor Goodyear's method of sighting with a camera across a plumbline, alleging that imperfect levelling of the camera has produced distortion of the perspective. They forget that any camera error that made a perpendicular pier seem to lean would affect a plumbline to precisely the same degree. In short, failure to level the camera would penalize itself. We think that those who have given any attention to Professor Goodyear's photographic enlargements have had to admit the demonstrative character of the evidence. A certain number of opponents hold their ground by the simple expedient of declining to consider the data. In the *American Architect* for March 16 are some peculiarly instructive plates on a large scale, mostly from Rheims and Amiens, but a serious student should consult the photographs themselves at the Museum of the Brooklyn Institute.

The extent of Mr. Goodyear's researches may be suggested by the following figures:

> Some 78 [buildings] are offered by the exhibition as showing presumably convincing instances of constructive asymmetry. Among these buildings there are 19 which represent perspective illusions or predetermined arrangements which appear to have that result, whatever the purpose may have been. There are 15 churches which represent asymmetries of arcades or other demonstrably purposed asymmetries, aside from those of the perspective illusions or of the outline ground plan. There are 18 Italian churches which represent oblique and asymmetric plans, not including those with bent or curving lines. There are seven mediæval churches with interior bends of alignment not found on the exterior. There are 14 mediæval buildings which represent horizontal curves of alignment as distinguished from bends. There are three mediæval churches which exhibit curves or bends in elevation. There are seven ancient temples which represent horizontal curves, either in plan or in elevation. There are 32 churches which represent the widening refinement.

Truly a formidable list. No candid mind will fail to admit that the case for optical refinements in mediæval architecture is now quite as convincing as it is in Greek. In fact, one might hazard the opinion that these evasions of a too rigid symmetry are characteristic of any architecture that is really alive. In the light of the facts we must revise our view of the mediæval architects. They were not inspired dreamers, but knew what they were about. Wherever the Middle Ages are really studied the same thing results. We find not the romantic, instinctive people of historical fiction, but men essentially like ourselves, and a society not picturesquely disordered, but highly organized. Professor Goodyear's studies of mediæval architecture gain a credibility from the parallel investigations in literature and art of such scholars as Petit de Julleville, Gaston Paris, Xavier Kraus, and Emile Mâle.

Part of the art collection of Mrs. Charles H. Steinway was sold at the Fifth Avenue Art Gallery, in this city, last Friday. The highest price paid was $5,100 for an Edward Branders canvas, Near Boulogne, while a Henner painting brought $2,500, and one by Berne-Bellecour, $3,100.

Ch. des Granges, the French writer on the history of art, died recently. He was born in 1825. For many years he was director of *La France illustrée* and also of *L'Etoile du foyer*, and he was one of the oldest members of the Société des Gens de Lettres.

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MOODS OF THE INVESTING PUBLIC.

Two weeks ago, it was quite universally declared that "Wall Street sentiment" was cheerful. The week before it had been exceedingly gloomy. Last week, pessimism was again in the ascendant. These fluctuations apparently reflected the shifting ideas regarding the general investing public. They could not have been altogether a result of visible financial causes. If much has been made of the gold exports, the large demands on capital by corporations, the abnormal excess of imports over exports, the high cost of living, there is the one obvious comment that all these conditions existed in 1909, and were followed by a violent rise in the Stock Exchange.

The mood of an investing public may or may not be the mirror of fundamental financial conditions. Money, or credit, or both, the public must have if even a favorable mood is to be of any value to the markets; but except in case of a panic month or a really serious business depression, it is likely to have these at command, if it wishes to use them. What combination of circumstances—political, social, or financial—could be imagined much more unfavorable on its face to a public's mood for excited speculation than the state of affairs to-day in London? Nevertheless, the London public selected this moment for its plunge.

Our own public's mood in 1908 was a psychological study. Conditions of trade were distinctly unfavorable; almost all precedent favored a year of genuine hard times and Stock Exchange depression. Harriman, however, guessed the public's mood, started the ball of speculation rolling, and the public scrambled after it. Indeed, by Harriman's own admission, the speculating public actually snatched the stock market away from him after the November election, and rushed along at a pace which extorted a warning even from the initiator of the movement.

There are occasions when the outside public's mood is as hard for capitalists and speculators to discover as it seems to be to-day; and there are times when the most ordinary sagacity can discover it. A notable instance of the latter sort was 1901. The American public's imagination had been fired by what it saw in the markets of the day. Our "foreign trade credit balance" had risen from $23,190,000 in 1895 to $649,000,000 in 1900. Wall Street, which, in 1895, had been forced to apply to London for help in a crisis of its own, was now subscribing to British war loans in blocks of $100,000,000. Holders of stock of industrial companies which were absorbed and amalgamated, found themselves made rich overnight. Railway shares were bought up on the Stock Exchange in unprecedented amounts and at violently advancing prices, and the public, which did not then know that the purchasers were other railway companies who were about to issue bonds to raise the money, supposed that boundless reserves of individual capital were being tossed into the investment market.

The resultant mood of wild enthusiasm, which grew into passionate resentment at any one who predicted an untimely end to the speculation, was nothing more than the Wall Street of 1901 might reasonably have expected. What it did not expect was the instantaneous change in the public's mood after the 9th of May. So far from regarding that spectacular crash as a passing incident of the period, the public's attitude, during at least the three succeeding years, was one of suspicion and distrust. Whatever inducements Wall Street dangled before its eyes, the public would not buy, and before very long promoters and syndicates who had accumulated stocks, in expectation that the April craze of 1901 would forthwith be resumed, were liquidating at a prodigious loss.

Never, perhaps, have the moods of the general public been more sharply contrasted than in the present condition of things at London and at New York. Such London critics as have kept their heads in the "rubber craze" are beginning to draw comparisons with the famous South Sea Bubble, for the fury of speculation in enterprises of whose actual value the English public knows nothing whatever. Yet at this very moment the American public seems to be gazing in sullen apathy at the market for stocks and bonds, and a day's half-million-share sales on the Stock Exchange are notoriously made up of swapping of stock by rich professional operators on the floor.

With two such diametrically opposite phenomena, in markets so closely affiliated with one another, it is impossible not to wonder which mood, London's or New York's, most truthfully reflects the real situation of the day, and which gives the better clue to the financial future. Perhaps one answer is, that our own speculative markets had their fling in 1909, and that this is the morning after; whereas London waited until 1910. As for London now, very few people in this country doubt to-day that the London "rubber mania" is riding for a fall, and riding fast, or that, with the political complications now overhanging England, the fall will be severe. The one grain of comfort may be found in the plausible inference, even granting such presumptions, that the mere fact of the London public's ability to engage in such a speculation means in England, at all events, public prosperity behind the excesses of the markets. At any rate, this was so with ourselves in 1901, when the departure from our market of the chastened, angry, and crestfallen speculative public had not the slightest influence on the country's wonderful expansion in legitimate trade activity.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Archer, W. Through Afro-America. Dutton. $3 net.
Biss, G. The Fated Five. Brentano. $1.50.
Boyce, R. W. Health Progress and Administration in the West Indies. Dutton. $3.50 net.
Brady, C. T. South American Fights and Fighters. 1499-1868. Doubleday, Page. $1.50.
Browning, O. Memories of Sixty Years at Eton, Cambridge, and Elsewhere. Lane Co. $5 net.
Cecil, E. A History of Gardening in England. Dutton. $3.50 net.
Cook, F. F. Bygone Days in Chicago. Chicago: McClurg. $2.75 net.
Coriat, I. H. Abnormal Psychology. Moffat, Yard. $2 net.
Costantini, A. Ragna: A Novel. Sturgis & Walton. $1.50.
Crawford, F. M. The Undesirable Governess. Macmillan. $1.50.
Cross, V. The Eternal Fires: A Novel. Mitchell Kennerley. $1.50.
Davis, Y. The Green Cloak. Sturgis & Walton. $1.50.
Dewe, J. A. Psychology of Politics and History. Longmans.
Dickens's Tale of Two Cities. Edited, with notes, etc., by J. H. Lobban. Putnam. 30 cents net.
Gilchrist, B. B. The Life of Mary Lyon. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. $1.50 net.
Gillette, J. M. Vocational Education. Amer. Book Co. $1.
Gregory, H. E., Keller, A. G., and Bishop, A. L. Physical and Commercial Geography. Boston: Ginn. $3.
Hamilton, P. J. Colonial Mobile. Revised and enlarged. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. $3.50 net.
Hardy, Gathorne. A Memoir, with Extracts from His Diary. 2 vols. Longmans, Green.
Harland, M. Autobiography. Harper. $2 net.
Hay, I. The Right Stuff. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. $1.20 net.
Landor, A. H. S. An Explorer's Adventures in Tibet. Harper. $1.50.
Lloyd, J. W. Life's Beautiful Battle. Westfield, N. J.: The Lloyd Group.
Massachusetts Historical Society Proceedings, February and March, 1910.
Meyer, V. M. Small Talks on Auction Bridge. San Francisco: Paul Elder & Co.
Packard, W. Woodland Paths. Boston: Small, Maynard. $1.20 net.
Palmer, F. The Winning of Immortality. Crowell. $1 net.
Ransom, F. C. My Policies in Jungleland. Barse & Hopkins. $1.

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Shackleford, E. The Life of Me. Dodge Pub. Co. $1.50.
Sinclair, B. W. The Land of Frozen Suns: A Novel. Dillingham. $1.50.
Stewart, C. D. Essays on the Spot. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. $1.25 net.
The New School of Japan, Founded for the Purpose of Making the Use of the Newly Invented Letters. Tokio, Japan: Society of Dokuritsu Bongakkai.
Thomas, E. Rest and Unrest. Dutton. $1 net.
Thomas R. W. A Manual of Debate. American Book Co. 80 cents.
Thompson, C. M. An Army Mule. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. $1 net.
Valentine, C. S. How to Keep Hens for Profit. Macmillan. $1.50 net.
Vane, F. Walks and People in Tuscany. Lane. $1.50.
Viereck, G. S. Confessions of a Barbarian. Moffat, Yard. $1.25 net.
Wallace, D. Beyond the Mexican Sierras. Chicago: McClurg. $2 net.
Toligno, C. The Story of Padua. Dutton. $1.75 net.

Recent Books for Schools and Colleges

Chamberlin and Salisbury's College Geology.
By Thomas C. Chamberlin and Rollin D. Salisbury of the University of Chicago. $3.50.

Gratacap's Geology of the City of New York.
By L. P. Gratacap of the American Museum of Natural History. $2.50 net; by mail, $2.70.

Martin's The Human Body. Advanced Course.
New Edition. Revised by Dr. E. G. Martin of the Harvard Medical School. (In press.)

Moore's Physiology of Man and Other Animals.
By Anne Moore. 80 cents.

Wilder's History of the Human Body.
By H. H. Wilder of Smith College. $3.00.

Russell's Text-book on Hydraulics.
By George E. Russell of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. $2.50.

Hall and Frink's Trigonometry.
By A. G. Hall of the University of Michigan and F. G. Frink of the University of Oregon. $1.25.

Rietz and Crathorne's College Algebra.
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